

The Nation.

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The Week.

A member of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations rather cruelly exposes the way in which President Roosevelt's innocence may be taken advantage of by the wily Dominicans. This Senator shows why the President's course, which he thought so surely preventive of a revolution in Santo Domingo, was in reality provocative of one. Because, argued Mr. Roosevelt in the goodness of his heart, Dominican revolutionists "usually have as their real aim the obtaining possession of the custom-houses," and because we now have Americans collecting the revenue, therefore there will be no more revolutions. It was a beautiful Q. E. D. But along comes the Senator to pick flaws in the logic. He remarks that it was always the money, not the custom-houses, of which Dominican revolutionists wished to obtain possession. Consequently, when they were informed by President Roosevelt that a million dollars or so was lying in bank in New York, "for equitable division, in case the treaty shall be ratified, among the various creditors," their fingers naturally itched to get hold of it. The method was obviously to seize the Government, tear up the treaty, terminate President Roosevelt's "arrangement," and call for the delivery of that \$1,000,000. The money undoubtedly belongs to the Dominican Government; and if Jimenez or Cáceres or any other enterprising gentleman turns up as the *de facto* Government, he will be entitled to demand it. It appears, therefore, that what President Roosevelt fondly imagined would be a prize for peace, was really a premium for revolution.

We can hardly credit the report that James F. Smith, or Gen. "Jim" Smith, as he is familiarly known, is to succeed Luke E. Wright as Governor-General of the Philippines. That Mr. Wright would not return to Manila has been the accepted belief in Washington, notwithstanding repeated official denials. The chief objection to him seems to be his Southern point of view in his treatment of the Filipinos, in accordance with which he has kept himself aloof from social relations with them. Gen. Smith, who is a prominent Catholic, is about forty-six years of age, and first went to the Philippines as colonel of the First California Volunteers, giving up his law practice to do so. In April, 1899, he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and as such he was Governor

of Negros. In 1900 he served as collector of customs at Manila, and a year later became associate justice of the insular Supreme Court. On October 13, 1902, he was appointed a member of the Philippine Commission, succeeding Prof. Bernard Moses. In the three years he has held this position he has been largely engaged in the task of forcing the English language upon the natives, as head of the Department of Public Instruction. He has also had under him the Bureau of Public Printing, the Bureau of Archives, the Bureau of Census, etc. We cannot feel, however, that Gen. Smith is of the proper calibre to warrant his being made head of the Government. It was a step downward from Taft to Wright, as a result of which there is a wider cleft between Filipinos and Americans than ever before, as Mr. Taft discovered last summer. It would be a step downward from Wright to Smith. The Governor-General ought, for one thing, to be widely known to the people of the United States and to possess their confidence.

We sympathize with the bronze founders who have petitioned Secretary Taft to see to it that all statutory commissions by the Government be cast in American shops. The immediate grievance concerns MacMonnies's "Sherman," which is about to be put in bronze by the pauper founders of Paris. MacMonnies, the complainants allege, has done this thing for no better reason than that bronze casting is cheaper in Europe than America. We are unwilling to believe that he can have been moved by so unpatriotic a motive. He must know that the formula "a cheap coat makes a cheap man" is as true of civil-war generals in bronze as in woollens. One would fain believe that simple convenience and acquaintance count for something. Mr. MacMonnies has lived for years in Paris, most of his sculpture has been both modelled and cast there, and it is possible that his reasons for abiding by the artisans he knows are not wholly anti-American. Secretary Taft's petitioners point out that American casting is surpassed by none, which is the fact, and add as an interesting detail that they are making a bronze McClellan for Mr. Paul Bartlett. Now Mr. Bartlett, like his colleague, MacMonnies, is an expatriated American, and has made and manufactured the greater part of his sculpture in Paris. Still, the transfer of his McClellan to an American firm has not been the occasion of indignation at Paris. In short, it is a cosmopolitan age, and the fact may yet be perceived by the outraged brass founders of Amer-

ica, most of whom are of French, and very recent, derivation.

One result of the withholding of passes by the railroads entering the city of Washington is that the Congressional mileage this year ceases to be a mere generous addition to the member's salary, and must be regarded, for the first time in many years, as a sum actually to be spent in travelling home and back. Baltimore, for instance, is an hour's ride from Washington. The Baltimore Congressmen receive \$16.80 each as mileage. Those from the State of Washington have about a hundred times as much, or \$1,412.40, while the Hawaiian delegate heads the list with \$2,314.30. Debates on the mileage question have brought out rather amusing differences of opinion as to whether travelling expenses, when the 20-cent-a-mile rate was fixed, were lower or higher than at present. But that this amount will enable a member to pay fare, especially at the season of holiday rates, is hardly to be disputed. In fact, the injustice of the present system is that it enables the member from a Western district who actually goes home and pays his way—let alone the one who does not—to save hundreds of dollars more out of his mileage than the Easterner. There is much to be said in favor of the plan of paying legislative expenses of travel in the same way as if the men were on departmental business.

Such a retirement as that of the Chief Justice of the United States Court of Claims at the end of last year ought not to pass unnoticed. Judge Nott had been a member of that Court for nearly forty-one years. In the class of important questions coming before it he made for himself a high judicial reputation. All his life an eager student of government, he retires now, not on account of infirmities of age, but mainly to devote his remaining years to further constitutional studies. His career has been honorable and serviceable to the country, and he will take with him from the bench the respect and good wishes of all who have been in any way associated with him.

It is a pity that bosses politically executed by their fellow-citizens should die such a lingering death. Cox of Cincinnati received his death-stroke early in November, but actual dissolution was not to occur until January 1, and meanwhile he retained strength for more mischief. He has just put through the City Council, by a vote of 25 to 3, an ordinance giving a franchise without

compensation for supplying natural gas. For the rejection of a competing offer of 30-cent gas, as against the 75-cent product of the favored company, and the similar rejection of a half-million-dollar offer for the same privilege, it is hard to find a closer parallel than Mayor Ashbridge's famous act of signing away Philadelphia's street railway privileges for nothing, when a \$2,000,000 offer was before him. "Remember Philadelphia" was the rallying cry against the eleventh-hour ordinance in Cincinnati, but it was unsuccessful. One thing to be said about such utterly barefaced jobs as this is that they indicate either sublime confidence of the ring in its ability to keep in power, or else confession of defeat for a good while to come. We trust that in Cincinnati the former alternative may be dismissed as impossible.

It is not alone Mayor McClellan's words on taking office which indicate that he has turned over a new leaf, and that upon it the name Tammany is not written in capital letters. There are also acts which speak louder than words. Among them, the Mayor's appointments are most significant. Good or bad, as the event may prove them, they are at least his own. Murphy makes a ghastly pretence of being satisfied with them—that is one of the necessary humiliations of a defeated boss—but is not equal to asserting that he suggested them. Mayor McClellan has set up for himself. A sure sign of it is the fact that only two Tammany district leaders were present at his New Year's reception. The joyous claim of ownership which the Wigwam made, and with so good a show of right, two years ago, it no longer puts forward. Mayor McClellan's declaration of independence marks him as the latest if not most distinguished convert from the doctrine that municipal affairs are best administered when administered in the interest of a party. If he has not come over fully and openly to the belief in absolutely non-partisan administration of cities, he is, at any rate, worlds away from his position of two years ago. Then his talk was all of the necessity of parties in municipal government. He was a Democrat (meaning a Tammany Democrat) and he served notice that he should make his Administration Democratic—that is, Tammany. But the hard school of experience has taught him the folly of that. His purely partisan appointees have been the ones which brought him most embarrassment and discredit; and now he announces but one standard, that of efficient service of the city. And he warns his new heads of department that he will not hesitate to remove any of them whom he finds coming short in the strict performance of their duty to the city.

Mr. McClellan's rather melancholy putting away of the hope of political advancement—the Mayorality, he declares, is "the last public office which, in all human probability, I shall ever fill"—he seemed to think an inevitable concomitant of his pledge to give the city "a clean, efficient, and honest government." Yet one does not necessarily imply the other. What the Mayor has in mind, doubtless, is the shattering of his old theory, and the dissipation of his old hopes, regarding the road to high political station. Instead of being comfortably assisted by Murphy into the Governor's chair, and thence to the White House, he suddenly discovers that Murphy has very nearly pulled him down in his own ruin. Already there are rumors of a new Tammany combination for the double purpose of ousting Murphy and attacking McClellan, rendering the latter impotent, if possible, in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

"The insurance companies," said Louis F. Payn last week, "are cowards," thus compressing into five words one of the most important facts which the legislative committee has uncovered in its months of investigation. The huge insurance companies, the richest and in many ways the most powerful corporations in America, have been the victims of organized blackmail. Bullied by this highwayman or that, they have paid out hundreds of thousands of dollars as meekly and uncomplainingly as private people with more money than brains (our Amalgamated Association of Easy Marks) have subscribed \$1,500 or more each to that ridiculous book, 'Fads and Fancies.' For the man who hands out one or two thousand dollars rather than have the family skeleton exposed, one feels not pure contempt, but a certain pity also. An individual who wishes to avoid trouble and who has no defence except costly and unpleasant litigation, has a pretext, if not an excuse, for his weakness. But the insurance companies can plead neither feebleness nor ignorance. Their resources have been enormous; they have retained the ablest lawyers. Yet—to quote Mr. Payn again—"all these great corporations are afraid not only of strike legislation, but of some of these insurance departments. There are also agents and actuaries who strike them." It was nominally in order to guard against these so-called strikes that the New York Life, the Equitable, and the Mutual formed an offensive and defensive alliance, and created an elaborate machine for the corruption of legislatures and State officials, and for the manufacture of public sentiment by newspaper articles.

The full plan of combination of the

Belmont and Ryan traction interests contemplates turning the present \$30,000,000 Interborough stock into \$70,000,000 bonds, with a "bonus" of \$31,500,000 in new stock; converting the \$52,000,000 outstanding Metropolitan Street Railway stock into \$78,000,000 new stock, and buying up the stock of the old "holding company" with stock of a new one. This is, clearly enough, a stock-watering plan on the scale of 1901. We are not likely to hear again very soon the assertion which the Subway's financial managers have been wont to make with pride, that here at least is a railway enterprise in which capital inflation has played no part. The new plan, if carried out successfully, will change all that, and will change it on much the same lines as Jay Gould selected, a generation ago, for watering the stock of the Elevated Railway. The "traction-merger" plan is, in fact, worthy of careful study as a financial expedient which unites the particular vices of the so-called "new finance" with the characteristic vices of the old. It may be further remarked, for the information of the curious, that the proposal involves confession that the celebrated "Metropolitan deal" of February, 1902, has been a failure from every point of view. When the chairman at the meeting of Metropolitan Street Railway shareholders had ordered those helpless investors to "vote for the motion first and discuss it afterward," and when the lease of the system to the new company, on a 7 per cent. guaranteed dividend, had been decreed, we raised the question who was to guarantee the guarantor. The answer which most people now will make is that the guarantee was in most respects worthless. The 7 per cent. dividend has not been earned; the guarantor is sick of his guarantee; therefore it is now proposed that, when the Street Railway shareholders "come into the new deal," they shall consent to the scaling down of their dividend to 5 per cent. This gentle suggestion is accompanied by a proffer of \$26,000,000 bonus in the common stock of the new "holding company," to the manufacture of which security the plan is chiefly devoted. This is merely the breaking of the 999-year lease of 1902 because its continuance had become inconvenient to the lessee.

If a part of the water put into the traction merger was placed there in the belief that the city will be helpless before the plans of the promoters, they must already be undeceived. The Rapid Transit Commission is awake to the situation. President Orr makes it plain that he and his colleagues do not propose to be, in the matter of new subways, at the mercy of the Belmont-Ryan combination. If the latter's bid for the subway extensions is not on terms ad-

vantageous for the public, some way will be found to introduce competition, or else the city will build for itself. It is late in the day for any traction syndicate, however over-capitalized, to ask New York insolently, "What are you going to do about it?" The power to tax and to regulate remains, and it should freely be made use of in order to protect the public from extortion. And if the Belmont-Ryan combination comes forward *in forma pauperis* to plead that it cannot build the new subways on proper terms, since it would then not be able to pay its fixed charges, a fitting reply by the Rapid Transit Commission would be: "Squeeze the water out of your bonds and then you can."

To raise \$100,000 in America for the support of higher classical studies in Rome is probably harder than to raise a million for some project of commercial or industrial education at home. Yet the good news that this has been done was announced last week from Ithaca. It has taken five years of persistent effort to do it, and now the American School of Classical Studies in Rome passes from the time of trial to an era of assured support. It has been one of the only two schools of higher scientific learning sustained by American generosity on the Continent of Europe; but it has had to struggle hard, first for its life, and then for due recognition. All the time it has gone quietly about its work, living frugally, husbanding its energies, and winning year by year the increasing respect of the Italian Government, the Vatican, and the German, French, and British Schools. It has produced a small group of trained investigators and museum experts. It has sent back to our schools and colleges nearly one hundred and fifty instructors, newly vivified and alert from contact with the quickening influences of the greatest teacher of ancient history—the Eternal City. It has won its way for the best of reasons—it has proved its right to live. And the success already won by economy and well-directed hard work should lead to greater things. Its endowment should be enlarged and a permanent home provided for it.

With Campbell-Bannerman's flat statement that Irish Home Rule does not mean Irish independence, and the Duke of Devonshire's advice that Liberal Unionists should vote for Liberal candidates rather than for Chamberlainites, the separatist skeleton has been quietly put back into its closet, and the general election will be fought on the immediate issue of protection and free trade. As if to emphasize this fact, Mr. Chamberlain's election manifesto distinctly demands a tariff which will "secure the largest amount of employment

at fair wages for our people." Yet with a consciousness that fiscal reform is a little heavy to float alone, he buoys it up with abuse of a "Home-Rule-Little-Englander Government." But, for electoral purposes, the Prime Minister appears to have plain sailing. Mr. Balfour has been as unsuccessful in interpolating the Home-Rule issue as he has been in suppressing that of Imperial reciprocity. With the issues clearly defined for the battle before the constituencies, the Liberals may remain well content. In case of their success, there will, of course, remain the Irish members to deal with. Home Rule is, after all, only adjourned, and Mr. Redmond's followers may not like Campbell-Bannerman's and Mr. Bryce's recipe for "devolution of power" much better than Balfour's and Mr. Wyndham's.

John Burns, the first Labor member of Parliament to become a Cabinet Minister, displayed good sense in his first official speech, on December 20, on the subject of the unemployed. For loafers and drunkards, he declared, he had no sympathy. In this he is in accord with a clergyman, the Rev. Mr. Watts-Ditchfield, whose life is devoted to the service of the London poor, and who holds that the two most troublesome classes are the worthless vagabonds, not far removed from criminality, and those without any trade, and therefore so frequently without occupation. He, with Gen. Booth of the Salvation Army, favors colonization for the latter, though he would have them settled in the sparsely populated parts of Ireland, rather than in Australia. For that matter, Australia does not appear to want these superfluous and helpless Englishmen. Gen. Booth has admitted that his plan of colonizing them in the interior of Australia is opposed by the authorities. The latter argue with much force that such feeble and feckless settlers, even if given 200 acres of land, would not be able to support themselves, and might be expected soon to become a public charge.

In France also the question of the unemployed is serious. The latest statistics show that there are in that country twenty thousand men who are without work simply because they do not wish to work. During the winter many of them are glad to drift into the prisons, where they find it more comfortable than to wander through streets and lanes by day, and to sleep under the shelter of bridges and outhouses by night. But during the warmer months their roof is the sky, and they feed themselves by begging in the smaller towns and hamlets. Unfortunately, it is not upon the rich that the burden of this vagabond class weighs most heavily, for they are difficult of access and

enjoy police protection. The industrious laborer, the small farmer and tradesman, the unprotected women and children, have to support this shiftless, wandering army and endure its importunity and half-veiled threats. In England under the Tudors the man who gave to a beggar was fined, and the recipient of the gift was punished. It seems to have been perceived that the vagabond is potentially a criminal, and that it is usually his cowardice, not his conscience, which deters the street beggar and the tramp from robbery and violence. Certainly, as John Burns holds, no plan of dealing with the unemployed will commend itself which does not rule out these wastrels and semi-criminal idlers, or deal sharply with them.

With King Edward and President Loubet known to be delighted with the outlook for peace, rumor-mongers are hard put to it to get up the war scare so essential to all "forecasts of the year" of the time-honored kind. Berlin, too, is insistent that there are no war-clouds on the horizon. But even this assurance is not enough for the London *Times*—now one of the most sensational journals—and its anonymous "military correspondents." They can get you up a war-scare at any time on any order, having the finest possible nose for fighting on the Indian frontier. If you show them the folly of that, they are persuaded that the Emperor of Germany means to steal the Baltic provinces from his brother of Russia. With this officially denied, there is always the opportunity to hint that the Moroccan difficulty has just reached a "very critical stage" known only to insiders. Finally, when this bubble is exploded, there is ever the Far East to turn to. As matters stand now, the would-be manufacturers of war seem to be trying to get up a fight between France and Germany which shall be labelled, "Made in England." As such it need cause no worry.

No one deplores the lack of method in the revolutionary madness of Russia more than the recognized leaders of the Liberal movement. Peter von Struve protests, in a recent number of the Moscow *Russkiya Vedomosti*, against the dictatorship of the "revolutionary proletariat," no less fatal, in his opinion, to the cause of freedom than the dictatorship of the "Black Hundred." He warns laboring men and the peasantry against the folly of being drawn into social anarchy, and condemns in the strongest terms the current strike. He contrasts its excesses with the well-considered aims of the strike of last October, and remarks: "Let us beware of making an idol and a fetish of so dangerous a remedy. What is to-day a glorious strike, may to-morrow be destructive and criminal."

A TREATY WITH CHAOS.

Newspaper readers must have rubbed their eyes at the dispatches telling of another revolution in Santo Domingo. Only a month before they had been assured on the highest authority—that of President Roosevelt—that such a thing was impossible. In his last message to Congress, the President explained that the wise “temporary arrangement” which he made after the Senate had refused to ratify his treaty with Santo Domingo, had “completely discouraged all revolutionary movement” in the island. His firm but kind intervention had enabled “the poor harassed people of Santo Domingo once more to turn their attention to industry, and to be free from the curse of interminable revolutionary disturbance.” “Stability and order and all the benefits of peace are at last coming to Santo Domingo.” True, Mr. Roosevelt contemplated a distant possibility of “chaos.” That was to be feared, he informed Congress, only in case the “arrangement” was allowed to terminate and the treaty to fail. But chaos has arrived ahead of time.

To go back over the President’s course in all this Dominican adventure is to discover great vacillation on his part. He does not appear to have been clear in his own mind as to either the grounds of his contemplated action, its method, or its scope. First came that extraordinary agreement of January 20, which has not yet been fully explained, but which was, in effect, a treaty to be put into force without ratification by the Senate. That the President’s agents, under his instructions, so regarded the remarkable document is certain; the *Tribune’s* inspired Washington correspondent announced that this was also the Administration view. But strong opposition arose, and a new treaty was framed and submitted to the Senate on February 15. This was the treaty of which Secretary Hay wrote, at about that time, to a friend that he should not be inconsolable if the Senate killed it, though the President assured the Senate of its vast importance, and dwelt on the “urgent need of prompt action.” In a special message on March 6, he renewed his demand for “action at an early moment.” But an unfeeling Senate turned a deaf ear. Things dragged along under the “arrangement,” and, meanwhile, the treaty was patched up again, and again laid before the Senate.

What was the main reason given by Mr. Roosevelt for the action he proposed to take? The Monroe Doctrine. That was thrust to the front both by himself and by his apologists. It was “the late Colonel Monroe” who was compelling us to readjust the finances of the Dominican republic, or of any other bankrupt country in this hemisphere. “Those who profit by the Monroe Doctrine,” said the President, “must accept certain respon-

sibilities along with the rights which it confers”; and the responsibility for the foreign debts of Santo Domingo was deduced with irrefragable logic. So, too, Prof. J. B. Moore, who has so often been called in by the Administration as a convenient expounder of its international law, explained in the *Review of Reviews* that the Dominican proposal was simply “the Roosevelt corollary from the Monroe Doctrine.” But there were Monroe Doctors in the Senate, too, and they would not admit the “corollary” at all; in order to placate them, its only begetter has now thrown it out of the window, Professor Moore and all. Says President Roosevelt in his latest message: “It is not of the slightest consequence whether we grant the aid needed by Santo Domingo as an incident to the wise development of the Monroe Doctrine, or because we regard the case as standing wholly by itself, and to be treated as such and not on general principles or with any reference to the Monroe Doctrine.”

In that last sentence is indicated a fatal weakness of many of President Roosevelt’s proceedings. “Not on general principles.” A friend and even admirer of Mr. Roosevelt’s has said that his mind seems incapable of grasping a general principle. He is strong on specific instances, but seldom sees their logical connection, and is indignant if told that given action in a given case will compel him to act similarly in another one just like it. It is the thing he immediately wants to do that fills his mind; remoter consequences, the question of applying like measures to like circumstances, the great political truth that when you say A you must also say B—all these things he sheds impatiently. He will not admit, we see, that he is laying down a “general principle” in his plans for Santo Domingo; another republic in distress that might come along and appeal for aid on exactly the same basis, the President would feel at liberty to send away with soundly boxed ears.

It is unfortunately true, however, that statesmanship cannot get along without general principles. The distinction is at least as old as Aristotle between what he called the “emotional” ruler, who puts his will or whim in place of statute, and the public man who governs his conduct by general laws. In the mortifying muddle into which the President has fallen in Santo Domingo we see what comes of putting personal wishes in the place of hard facts. Mr. Roosevelt wished to think of President Morales as a strong “ruler” with the people of his country behind him, and consequently so described him; whereas the slightest study of recent Dominican history would have shown of what type of desperate adventurer he was, and how wildly imprudent it would be to tie to him. In trying amiably to prevent

“chaos,” Mr. Roosevelt has, in fact, made a treaty with it. It is doubtless the dawning of this fact upon Washington which now makes even “Administration circles” confess that the chances of the treaty’s ratification are almost nil. As the terrible hurricane in St. Thomas in 1870 had much to do with the Senate’s rejection of President Grant’s treaty to annex that island, so, it seems certain, will the news of a revolution in Santo Domingo “against the Government and the Dominican-American fiscal convention,” as the dispatches report it, give President Roosevelt’s Santo Domingo treaty its quietus.

REFORM BETWEEN FRIENDS.

Secretary Shaw comes gallantly to the rescue of his friend, John R. Walsh, who caused three Chicago banks to become insolvent. There was nothing “criminal,” he declares, about Walsh’s methods. To be sure, “that part of the banking law which prohibits the loaning of more than 10 per cent. of the capitalization to one man may have been violated”; but even that is not criminal, and Walsh “did no more than many other bankers are doing all the time.” Besides, “the depositors will get every dollar,” so what possible ground of complaint is there? The rumor of prosecution by the Government, Mr. Shaw added, is “nothing but talk.”

It is more than “talk,” however, when the chief minister of finance thus pooh-poohs serious financial irregularities. At a time when there is so much suspicion and distrust in people’s minds, following the financial scandals that have leaped to light, the Secretary of the Treasury should be the last man even to appear to lower the standards. He should lead all the rest in insisting upon absolute probity, faithful compliance with every provision of the law, maintaining sacredly each safeguard. The defence, “they all do it,” ill becomes a man in a position of his high responsibility; and as for the excuse that no money was lost to innocent parties by the improprieties and illegalities, that is something which Mr. Shaw had better leave to George W. Perkins. For our part, we find the Secretary’s condonation of Walsh simply shocking—most shocking of all, perhaps, from the fact that Mr. Shaw appears to think it the most innocent thing in the world. Walsh is his personal friend. It is in the guise of friendship that Mr. Shaw comes forward to make light of the charges against the Chicago banker and promoter.

In this respect, it must be confessed, he is following an exalted precedent. It is characteristic of this Administration that it can see nothing wrong in any of its friends. Very kind to their virtues, it is stone blind to their faults. What would be outrageous or unlawful in an

ordinary citizen, is, at the worst, mistaken zeal in the case of a friend of the Administration. Washington has, in fact, seen a revival of the political classification of London, more than a century ago. Men fall into one of two groups—"Enemies of the Administration," or "Friends of the Administration"; and the latter meet the theological definition, *non possunt peccare*. The theory is this, and it is so firmly held by the President that it is no wonder his Secretaries take it up: "We are conscious of only the purest motives; reform is our daily bread; we think of nothing but the public good. Our virtues are, in short, so miraculous that they necessarily impart something of their supernal quality to our friends. Hence any appearance of unfitness or wrongdoing on their part is deceptive. Any man who brings an accusation against them is either misinformed or malicious."

We were used in Grant's day to seeing the President "stand by" his personal friends when "under fire." Nowadays, however, the ones who are under fire are those who dare to insinuate a doubt against the President's friends. The Presidential batteries open with the fury which we still remember in the case of Paul Morton. Mr. Roosevelt's indignation burned hot at the supposition that the crime of railroad rebating could any longer be a crime when committed by a friend of his. People hastily call this a glaring inconsistency; but it really shows that the President is so dead in earnest about himself and his work, so convinced that all his acts are unimpeachable and his friends flawless, that he simply cannot see what others see. The wicked laugh, but the President perceives no joke whatever.

The publication of the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission serves to demonstrate how Mr. Roosevelt's mind works in this matter. First, we have his letter of April 1 (not taken at the time for an All Fools' Day jest), reorganizing the Commission, and describing the high technical requirements of the appointees. Then we have his speech of May 10, at Chicago, telling the people how he had asked Congress for power to remodel the Commission, and how, when it did not do so, "I remodelled it anyhow, . . . and made up my mind to put the best man I could in any given position." Following all this, we have had President Roosevelt's nomination as Canal Commissioner of a man whose warmest champions do not pretend that he has any special qualification for that office. But Mr. Bishop is a personal friend of the President, and that is sufficient to make him fit for any position within Mr. Roosevelt's gift.

If any President but Mr. Roosevelt had tried to foist a crony upon the Commission, all would have thought it a job. People would have said that Jackson or

Grant or McKinley never made a more flagrant misuse of public funds to take care of a friend. They would have pointed out that Mr. Bishop's first appointment as "agent of publicity" at \$10,000 a year had proved indefensible, and that then the President, in his "anyhow" spirit, had set about making him a "place" at the same salary, fitness or no fitness. But this would be to do the President wrong—to overlook his profound conviction that any friend of his is, *ipso facto*, capable of adorning any position. The long line of Rough Riders and "old guides" whom he has appointed to office does not prove favoritism, but only his firm determination, as he says, to get the best man. Only, with Secretary Shaw, he regards best man as synonymous with friend. It all depends upon the point of view. If President Cleveland had been caught in such an abuse of patronage as the Bishop nomination, Mr. Roosevelt, as stern insister upon Roman virtue in a Democratic Executive, would have made the heavens ring. But Mr. Cleveland had not the great administrative gift of feeling in his heart that he was impeccable and his friends necessarily beyond criticism.

THE PHILIPPINE RAILWAYS.

Governor-General Wright announced on Christmas day that if the second attempt to secure bids on the Philippine railroads should prove unsuccessful, at least a part of the proposed system, "one or more of the important lines," would be built by the Government itself. Following the rejection a fortnight ago of all the bids thus far received, this announcement assumes not a little importance. It adds a new element to the confusion of the existing Philippine situation. There are now in the archipelago about 120 miles of railway, extending from Manila to Dagupan. The Philippine Commission, desirous of developing the economic resources of the country as rapidly as possible, has projected a complete system of railways, aggregating about a thousand miles and furnishing an outlet for the products of the most important regions. The Manila-Dagupan line was built by English capital under a guarantee by the Spanish Government of an 8 per cent. return on the investment. From Congress last year was secured the right of our commission to guarantee 4 per cent. return for thirty years on bona-fide capital invested in the new lines to be built. It is under this law, the Cooper-Lodge act, that the work of securing bidders is proceeding.

The situation at present may be aptly compared to that which exists with reference to the Subways in this city. The existing line has been turned over by its builders to American interests, which themselves put in bids on additional

lines still to be constructed, so as to form one system. The only rival offer came from a newly formed American company, which would, if successful, operate the new lines only. The interest of the Commission, meanwhile, lies not only in securing as favorable terms as possible, but in getting the entire system constructed by some one. Secretary Taft stated before the House Committee that of the thousand miles of projected roads, perhaps 30 or 40 per cent. might be expected to make a profit within the near future. The others are expected to be unprofitable for a considerable period to come; those which will not pay are those which it is most important to construct in the interest of the islands; and the line probably most costly—from Manila through the Caravello Pass to Aparri on the Cagayan River—is, according to Mr. Taft, the most expensive of all. While the terms of the rejected bids have not been made public, it is a fair supposition that the bidder controlling the existing road would make the most favorable offers on lines naturally tributary to that road, while the opposing interest would endeavor to secure the lines which could be operated to advantage independently.

Failing to get satisfactory estimates, Secretary Taft has now liberalized the terms, and is making, very properly, a special effort to secure bidders who will waive the guarantee of interest. The new terms provide:

"Whenever in any case a bidder proposes to build the whole or any of the routes specified in the original invitation without guarantee, he may make his bid deviate in any respect from the specified limitations set forth in the original invitation, provided his terms are such as may be granted by the Philippine Government in view of the provisions of the acts of Congress approved July 1, 1902, and February 6, 1905, as set forth in the original invitation."

A great deal was said in Congress about the impossibility of securing American capital to build the lines without Government aid, but that there should be any hitch in getting the work done with such inducements does not seem to have occurred to any of the members who took part in the debate. Taft himself, when civil governor, had said:

"It should be noted that if American capital declines to come, English, Belgian, and other foreign capital is merely awaiting the franchises which are requested for railroad and other constructive enterprises; and that it will be the duty of the Commission to grant such franchises for the benefit of the Islands."

The argument that the execution as well as the conception of these important aids to the development of our wards ought to be in exclusively American hands, is one that falls in with the general idea of our Providential function in the Orient. We have no doubt there could be found defenders of even the bald proposition that it is better to pay an American for the work than to

let a foreigner do it for nothing. At the same time, the logic of the initial policies might lead us to some dangerous conclusions. Every concession in the islands which is predicated on the express or implied promise of the United States to retain ownership indefinitely is another obstacle in the way of free and enlightened action in the future. The Philippine railroads had better not be built at all if their construction commits us to permanent occupation. This is certainly a danger in our whole policy of material development. What effect did Secretary Taft's "injudicious" mention of Philippine independence have, for instance, on prospective bidders for concessions in the Philippines last year? The present guarantee of railroad profits would be made nominally by the insular authorities; but how far is the Federal Government's credit virtually to be pledged? The case has been stated very frankly. For example, Mr. Cooper, chairman of the Committee on Insular Affairs, said in closing the debate in the House:

"Mr. Speaker, American capital refuses to go into railroad building in those islands because of the risk—a risk in part, at least, attributable to the threats constantly made by gentlemen upon that side of the Chamber and by their political associates throughout the United States, that, give them the power, they will turn those Islands over to a native Filipino Government."

The argument was in effect that we must build Philippine railroads, whatever the cost and however far-reaching the consequences. If the present efforts result in getting the desired construction without creating too powerful vested interests naturally adverse to an ultimate separation, then the pen with which President Roosevelt signed the important bill, and which was destined—we do not know if it has got there yet—for a glass case in the Philippine Museum, may be a real object of inspiration.

FREEDOM OF OPINION IN THE SOUTH.

The late Chancellor Hill of the University of Georgia was a representative of the new school of thought in the South, and his death is a loss to the progressive men of that section. A Georgian by birth and lifelong residence, he was as loyal and as devoted to his State as any dweller in Dixie. But he was never one who believed that because a thing or an idea was Southern, it was *ipso facto* right; or that because a custom or a habit of mind commended itself to Southerners, it was therefore sacrosanct. A man of solid learning and sound principle, he naturally thought for himself, and it did not terrify him or silence him if by accident his notions went counter to certain accepted views of the community in which he happened to live.

It was this kind of courage which led

him to head the Prohibition State ticket in one of its "forlorn-hope" campaigns; as it doubtless had something to do with his suddenly being called from a lawyer's office to become the head of his alma mater, without any previous teaching experience. Once there, he did not let his presidency padlock his lips or blind him to the truth that free speech is nowhere more necessary than within academic walls. It is related of him that when he heard, two years ago, that the trustees of Trinity College, North Carolina, had sustained the right of Prof. John Spencer Bassett to express himself in print in accordance with the dictates of conscience, Chancellor Hill called his students together and read them the news, declaring it a memorable event in Southern collegiate history. This it was in truth, since it marked the passing of the day when college professors could be driven from their chairs—as Prof. Andrew Sledd had been the year before—for printing opinions distasteful to a majority of their fellow-citizens.

Chancellor Hill was not content with thus putting himself on record. When, in February last, President Alderman of the University of Virginia was roughly assailed and dubbed a traitor by Senator Bailey for declaring that the South's political leaders of to-day were inferior to the Clays and Calhouns of long ago, Mr. Hill wrote out his views in the form of a plea for tolerance, and published it in the *Atlanta Constitution*. He dared to ask whether there really was freedom of opinion in the South; whether every man who "thought above a whisper" must do so "at the peril of his reputation, or his influence, or at the deadlier risk of having an injury inflicted upon the institution or cause he represents." In Mr. Hill's opinion, President Alderman went too far; to him it was wonderful that the South had so many good men in political life when one considered how unfriendly the situation is to the development of strong leaders—that "deadly paralysis of intellect caused by the enforced unanimity of thought within the lines of one party." Senator Bailey's conduct gave him the text, he declared, for a "warning against that worst evil in our intellectual, social and political and religious life—the illiberality that is ready to inflict the injury of rebuke and ostracism as a penalty for difference of opinion." And, he added: "We all know whence this situation comes. It is one of the entailed curses of slavery," resulting from a unanimous Southern "defence of slavery after the world at large and the thought of the age had entered up judgment of condemnation against it."

Had these words come from the pen of a Northern editor, many others besides Senator Bailey would have wrathfully denounced it. In a Southerner,

they implied great courage, as all understand who know what Mr. Hill described as the South's "morbid self-consciousness," its "touch-me-not sensitiveness"—a fundamental defect. It is this absolute domination of a narrow public opinion which is to-day the intellectual undoing of the South. Save at Washington and Lee, at Vanderbilt, at Sewanee, at Trinity, and one or two other colleges, it would stifle freedom of thought and of utterance in the institutions of learning, and drive away men of literary gifts and learning. Before it the press cringes and cowers, when it does not bow down for the sake of gain. Politicians fatten by harping upon it, cheat the people into electing them by basely playing on their prejudices, and predict impossible disaster if there be any break in that paralyzing unanimity of thought which Mr. Hill deplored so manfully. In many of its aspects history is repeating itself: the Southern woman who should dare to-day to teach negroes in the far South, would be as socially dead as was Mrs. Margaret Douglass after her month's imprisonment in Norfolk in January, 1854, for daring to teach free negro children, she being a Southern white woman of good standing.

But there is one difference—a most encouraging and happy one. Where no one could live in the South before 1861 and betray a difference of opinion as to the divine inspiration of slavery, there are more and more men like Walter B. Hill who are speaking out against an abridgment of that liberty of thought and speech which Mr. Hill defined as "the indispensable requisite for the ascertainment of truth." More and more colleges are coming to search for truth in the scientific spirit which knows no metes of section or of nation, or bounds of creed or shibboleth. The same Professor Sledd who was driven from Emory College in 1902 for his *Atlantic Monthly* article, was chosen president of the Florida State University in 1905. If the editor of the *World's Work*, himself a Southerner, is to be believed, the people are more and more beginning to look behind the bogies of the politicians; Mr. Roosevelt's trip South having opened the eyes of thousands who were misled into thinking him an unspeakable villain two years ago. Sooner or later the South will be freed from its voluntary chains, and will grant freedom of thought and freedom of criticism, not only to those who live at a distance, but to its own moral heroes as well.

THE ROUSSEAU REVIVAL.

The revolutionary upheaval in Russia may seem to lend significance to the fact that last year there was begun at Kiev a translation of the complete

works of Jean Jacques Rousseau. Perhaps it does, seeing that the cultivated classes have long been as much at home in French as in the vernacular, which was at one period affectingly displaced as the vehicle of social intercourse for the *bon ton*. On the other hand, when we reflect how much of this voluminous writer's output has by lapse of time become either tedious or obsolete—when one recalls, among other things, his dictionaries of Music and of Botany—a non-selective translation of the *whole* appears rather a literary than a political event; a chapter in the history of the human intellect rather than in the development of human society.

Yet again, in the first volume of the *Annales* of the year-old Geneva Société J.-J. Rousseau, in which we find the above bibliographical item, occurs a letter from Tolstoy, written in French under date of March 7-20, 1905, giving his cordial adhesion to the Society in these terms:

"Since the age of fifteen, Rousseau has been my master. Rousseau and the Gospels have been the two great and beneficent influences in my life. Rousseau does not grow old. Quite recently I happened to reread some of his writings, and I experienced the same sense of elevation of soul and admiration that I did in reading him in my early youth."

Here the circle of communion between the modern apostle of a return to primitive simplicity in living and the author of the 'Discours sur l'origine et les fondements de l'inégalité parmi les hommes' is obviously complete. Indeed, it is almost startling to discover a contemporary mind of the first order confessing to that subjection to the magic stimulus of Rousseau which was felt by Goethe and Schiller, Mme. de Staël, Bernardin de St.-Pierre, Byron, Shelley, Chateaubriand, Lamartine, Pestalozzi, and a host of other geniuses in close succession to the most eloquent of French writers.

Our present concern, however, is not with this theme, but with the manifestation which we have called a revival, though it is really the organized gathering up, in archives and in annual publications and in prospective editions of Rousseau, of the incessant researches concerning the man and his work, in Switzerland and Savoy particularly, which have of late years thrown a flood of light on the dark places of the 'Confessions.' The solid character of the new movement is attested by the scholars and specialists who have founded and will direct the Society, but also emphatically by the volume of *Annales* just issued by the house of A. Jullien at Geneva. Of its contents we shall not undertake a detailed account. Following the history of the foundation, the two leading papers are chapters of forthcoming works, one a memoir (by a descendant) of Dr. Tronchin, for his relations with Rousseau. In this is lucidly revealed the psychology of the de-

tachment of a devoted admirer, at first sympathizing more, through his Puritanism, with Rousseau than with Voltaire; then, after the appearance of 'Émile,' siding with the latter in his open and veiled attacks on Rousseau, from a religious intolerance not shared by the cynic philosopher of Ferney, and creating a situation that justified the half-informed victim in inferring a close conspiracy. The other paper, not inferior in interest and but little in importance, is taken from the captivating memoir, 'Madame de Charrière et ses Amis,' just now issued.

Next to be remarked are some forty pages of unpublished, or hitherto imperfectly printed, fragmentary writings of Rousseau. Among these, the first, "On Women," dates from 1735, in the midst of his formative relations with Mme. de Warens. It is a defence of the sex against its alleged petty figure in the heroic annals of the race. When we read: "First consider women deprived of their liberty by the tyranny of men, and these the masters of everything (for crowns, dignities, offices, the command of armies are wholly in their hands) through seizure from the earliest times by I know not what natural right, which I have never comprehended; and which may well have had no other basis than the strong hand"—we seem to hear that passage from the *Chant du Lévi*: "Sex always either slave or tyrant, whom man by turns oppresses and adores, yet cannot make (or be himself) happy save by allowing her equality with himself." It is still a far cry to 'Émile' and Mary Wollstonecraft's counter 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman.'

Chief curiosity in this rich collection is the unpublished marginal notes by Voltaire written in a prompt copy of 'Émile' in 1762, as evidenced by a facsimile. The general tone is depreciatory, often personally contemptuous and bitter, yet "bon," "très bon," and "excellent" are sometimes extorted; for Voltaire is commenting on the Profession of Faith of a Savoyard Vicar, almost to the exclusion of the rest of the work.

"The Original Score of Rousseau's 'Pygmalion'" deals with a fundamental aspect of the many-sided man. The love of music and the cultivation of it were the constant strand in the web of his existence. Mme. de Charrière wrote that she had always believed it was Rousseau's ear which made him what he was—but with reference to the music of style. This opera dates from 1762 (the year of 'Émile'), and, like the earlier and world-pioneer "Devin du Village," was composed both for the words and for the music by the same brain, but at first, for the music, only in part. The two andantes were Rousseau's; the rest was claimed by a Lyons collaborator, Horace Coignet. Hence some

cross-pretensions, which Rousseau finally met by recomposing the whole, and it is this second score, now preserved in the Royal Library at Berlin, which is discussed, with a reproduction, in the *Annales*. Authorship, however, is a consideration secondary to the conception of "Pygmalion," in which the title character does not sing, but speaks and recites, while the interspaces are filled sympathetically by the orchestra. Herr Istel properly couples this exposition of Rousseau's intent with a passage from the article *Récitatif obligé* in the 'Dictionnaire de Musique' (one of many, by the way, which enliven what is now pretty difficult steady reading), that dwells on the immense effectiveness of such coöperation between the actor and the orchestra—the crude germ of Gluck's subsequent practice and of Wagner's magnificent development.

We shall say no more except that the frontispiece to the *Annales* is a carbon print direct from Ramsay's portrait of Rousseau (1766), now in the National Gallery at Edinburgh—one of the two authentic paintings from life and by far the more interesting. On the cover is stamped the herborizing Jean-Jacques, as if in propitiation for a character so vehemently assailed by clergy and Philosophers alike. (So, a little more than a century ago—in 1801—a British engraving after the first mezzotints from Ramsay's portrait commended itself as the effigy of the author not of the 'Contrat Social,' the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' or 'Émile,' but of "Letters on Botany, etc.") But this figure is really the Society's chosen emblem; and M. Eugène Ritter, in his introduction to the *Annales*, disclaiming for the Society any doctrinaire spirit or design of blind hero-worship, shows that it has deliberately passed over all other phases of Rousseau in favor of "the solitary pedestrian, Rousseau pacified and reconciled; the dreamer; bare-headed to the sky, meditating on the posy of wayside flowers and herbs he regards in his hand." "To him all can be grateful for having loved God, love, childhood, and the free and simple life in the midst of nature."

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

BALTIMORE, December 30, 1905.

The programme of the Baltimore and Washington meeting of the American Historical Association, December 26-29, has been devoted almost entirely to American history. Of some twenty-five addresses or papers, only five dealt with other than the American field; and of those five, one—Professor Cheyney's paper on "The England of Our Earliest American Forefathers"—had an obvious American aspect. Such a predominant devotion to domestic matters seems hardly to show the reaction against American history which has come to characterize many of our colleges and uni-

versities, though of the fact of such reaction there can be little doubt; but it is frankly to be regretted that European history, in which an increasing amount of good work is being done in this country, was not more largely represented here. Further, of those who discussed European subjects, only one—Col. William R. Livermore of the United States army, whose paper related to plans for a new atlas of Europe—was a new name at the meetings. Clearly, however, the overshadowing Americanism of the programme did not act as a deterrent, for the sessions were well attended, and the meeting as a whole must be reckoned, both in numbers and in interest, one of the best ever held. As for the hospitality of those who received the Association as their guest, it was both gracious and abounding.

Professor McMaster, the first of the professorial presidents of whom the Association seems to have prepared a long line, chose for his address the alluring subject, "Old Standards of Public Morals." Those, however, who had anticipated some more or less obvious reference to current phases of public morality were disappointed, for Professor McMaster confined himself mainly to an historical presentation of certain striking instances, such as those afforded by religious intolerance, the cruel punishment of crime, and the repudiation of public debt, in which the moral shortcomings of our forefathers in America were only too painfully exhibited. Particularly effective, because in part more novel, was his condemnation of the bad faith of Congress in repudiating the Continental paper currency, for whose redemption the faith of Congress and of the country had repeatedly been pledged, and of the three generations of evasion and delay which characterized the treatment by Congress of the French spoliation claims.

Of the formal papers, two may be singled out for special mention. In a notably lucid and well-ordered paper, Prof. Ralph C. H. Catterall of Cornell traced in detail the part taken by Neuville, the French minister to the United States, in the negotiation of the Florida treaty of 1819. Neuville early pointed out in his dispatches the certainty that the United States would sooner or later have the Floridas, and with them, probably, a considerable extension of its territory west of the Mississippi; the only real question being when the appropriation would be made and how much would be taken. Spanish procrastination, joined to American persistence in the person of John Quincy Adams, eventually brought negotiations to a dangerous pause; and but for Neuville the treaty could hardly have been concluded at all, or war between the United States and Spain avoided. The paper was a good illustration of the wealth of important material still buried in diplomatic archives at home and abroad. Prof. William A. Dunning of Columbia, on the other hand, traversed the contention that the Republican party, whose alleged semi-centennial was celebrated with acclaim in 1904, is historically the Republican party of 1854. Whatever the traits by which a political party is to be defined, the facts seem to be that the Republican party of the late fifties and early sixties underwent a "new birth" in 1867 and 1868, through which, though retaining the old name, it came to occupy new ground and to profess new principles. Here, again, as in Professor Catterall's paper,

was the indication of a large field—in this case that of party history—as yet little tilled.

The other papers on the programme—a few of which, unfortunately, were not read—covered a wide area, those in American history paying special attention to the South. Virginia and the English colonial system, 1730-1735; why North Carolina at first refused to ratify the Federal Constitution; Marshall and the Virginia Supreme Court; the freedmen's savings bank; Avalon and the colonial projects of George Calvert; and the theatre and combatants of the civil war, were among the topics treated with more or less fulness. Two of the papers on other than American topics have already been referred to; besides these, special mention may be made of Prof. A. C. McGiffert's paper on the rise of the modern conception of the Divine immanence, and that of Prof. J. H. Robinson of Columbia on recent tendencies in the study of the French Revolution.

Ever since the publication of the report of the Committee of Seven, the Association has maintained a lively interest in the teaching of history in colleges and schools, and the conference this year on the first year of college work in history was largely attended. The accounts of the methods pursued at different institutions showed, to be sure, much diversity of practice as well as wide difference in material equipment and resource; but there was substantial agreement upon the necessity of first of all interesting the young student in the subject, and of laying a sure foundation of historical method. The preceptorial system at Princeton received attractive, if not entirely convincing, exposition at the hands of Mr. Hiram Bingham, himself a preceptor; while Prof. H. Morse Stephens's plea for greater attention to the formal lecture touched one of the weakest spots in our present scheme of historical instruction. Doubtless it is given to few teachers to win and hold the interest of young men with the success which Professor Stephens himself happily enjoys, or which Prof. J. Lewis Diman achieved at Brown a generation and more ago; but the steady decline, in both literary and scholastic power, of the university lecture in this country is surely matter of serious import.

The varied activities of the Association continue with undiminished vigor. The Historical Manuscripts Commission will henceforth confine itself to the publication of such papers in private hands as are not likely to appear through other channels, leaving to the Bureau of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution the task of making available the larger, more public, or more widely scattered collections. The Public Archives Commission is making steady headway with its great task of investigating the character and condition of State and local records, submitting this year reports on the State archives of Michigan and Wisconsin, the French archives of Illinois, and the local records of Georgia. Prof. Charles M. Andrews of Bryn Mawr and Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia, as a sub-committee of this Commission, are overseeing the transcription of papers in the Public Record Office for the Library of Congress—an undertaking which, if carried to completion, will eventually make accessible at Washington copies of all important docu-

ments in European repositories relating to America. Towards the State and local historical societies the Association can never, of course, hold any official relation, but such conferences as were held last year and this, in connection with the annual meeting, contribute appreciably to effective coöperation as well as to good fellowship. The membership of the Association grows apace, exceeding now 2,500, while the financial gain is, as usual, satisfactory. The meeting in 1906 is to be held at Providence, in connection with the meetings of the American Political Science Association and the American Economic Association.

INDUSTRY AND TAXES IN FRANCE.

Tours, November, 1905.

The rapidity with which countries, even when devastated as thoroughly as the Palatinate, recover from the ravages of war, has led economists to compute the accumulated wealth of the civilized world as amounting to no more than three or four times the annual production. How comes it, then, that, in a country like France, where population is stationary, and where peace has prevailed for more than a generation, the condition of the peasantry has so little improved? Their industry is incessant; not always directed most effectively, but in the main intelligently, and often attaining a high degree of perfection. Their toil is not only assiduous—even the women not ceasing to knit when they are gossiping—but also severe. Even with antiquated methods, the product of such enormous—one might almost say such terrible—industry should raise the laborers to affluence. Yet in the most fertile parts, such as those watered by the Indre and the Loire, the life of the peasants seems not much better than what we read of in the descriptions of the times before the Revolution. The habitations, both of man and beast, are generally the identical ones then used; because of their solid construction not needing much repair, but inconvenient, dark, cramped, and generally the worse for wear. People stump and clatter about in wooden shoes, and their ordinary garments are of coarse cotton cloth. They are starved with cold, for they have little material for fire, except their pitiful fagots of brushwood and dead limbs, such as in our country are burned as rubbish. To be sure, their cooking is a small matter; the baker does most of it (and very well, too), and not much fuel is needed to stew a few vegetables and boil that mysterious substance called coffee. As there is little reading, artificial illumination is not of so much importance; but it is painful to see the women bending over their needlework in their struggle to discern the stitches by a feeble lamp. Probably the standard of life is higher than it appears, for the French peasant has been taught by centuries of oppression to be secretive, and he may have invisible resources; but it is not what his labor would justify. He has much comfort in his wine, even if it is only the poorest that he keeps for himself, and a meagre pleasure in the vile tobacco provided by the Government's monopoly—a pleasure lessened by the viler matches likewise purveyed; but he does not get his deserts.

What becomes of the product of his in-

dustry? In part, the eye gives answer. The magnificent châteaux, the costly churches, the enormous convents, show what was done under the feudal system; and the vast casernes thronged with myriads of peasant lads in blue coats and red trousers show what is done now. This half-million of able-bodied men, withdrawn from productive industry, must be fed and clothed and housed and officered by the labor of perhaps twice that number of workmen—a burden of appalling magnitude. The naval establishment, although on a smaller scale and less conspicuous, is also an enormous burden. The employees in the navy yards, exercising a dubious right, have formed unions, and recently struck work because some of their number had been disciplined for denouncing militarism. The Government, depending for its existence on the workmen's votes, was obliged to justify its denial of the right to strike on the ground that its employees were a favored class. Other workmen must toil ten or twelve hours; its workmen only eight. Other workmen are laid off when they are not needed; its workmen are paid whether there is anything to do or not. Other workmen are liable to be dismissed by their masters; its workmen hold their places until they are of an age to retire on their pensions, which are payable also to their widows and children, and are twice as large as those offered to outside workmen by the bill now pending. Under these circumstances, the ordinary workingman can hardly be expected to think that the employees of the Government need the right to strike.

Further evidence is afforded to the senses in the enormous public buildings that have sprung up in the towns, large and small, flaunting extravagance in their gaudy architecture. Here in Tours, for example, there is not only the vast Préfecture, but also, in addition to many other buildings, an enormous, and enormously expensive, new Hôtel de Ville. The population of the town is 65,000; but this building would be sufficient for the proper administration of a town ten times as large. Many of the railroads, constructed by the Government or with its guaranty, are obviously unprofitable; and even the roads, brought through centuries of labor very nearly to perfection, often bear signs of the stupidity and extravagance of a centralized administration. Yet here, we must concede, the peasant receives something like an equivalent for his tax, and it is pleasant to see the draft horses so aided in their work. As to the schools maintained by the Government, it is hard to make out that they increase the intelligence of the common people; and the quality of the teaching is bitterly complained of. Still, the ability to read and write is worth paying for, and may be said to be cheap at any price.

But the great burdens upon industry are not disclosed to the eye. To understand them it is necessary to study the history of France for five centuries, to compute the debts which represent the price of military glory, and to examine the details of the terribly intricate system of taxation which now prevails. It is unnecessary to dwell on the results of a protective tariff. France is naturally a poor country. The soil is in many regions sterile, the forests are inferior, and there is little mineral wealth. But it has a population capable of intelligent

industry, capable of giving to matter attractive and beautiful forms. To such a country free importation would be peculiarly advantageous, resulting not only in large exportation, but also in better conditions of life. France is poor in coal, but the coal of England is easily accessible, and if it could be imported freely the stimulus to many forms of industry would be great. Could sugar be imported freely, no people could manipulate it with greater skill than the French; but the miserable history of the beet-sugar industry is notorious. The careful investigations of M. Zolla indicate that the tariff enhanced the price of wheat from 1896 to 1900 by four francs the hectolitre; and bread is the staff of life in France. M. Caillaux (former minister of finance) considers that the protective tariff imposes a burden of probably two milliards of francs on the consumer.

It may be added that before the Government monopolized the making of matches, the exports of that article amounted to eight millions of francs a year. With the growth of trade during the last thirty-five years, these exports might well have attained to twenty or thirty millions. They amounted in 1904 to less than forty thousand francs! Sometimes the Government fails to furnish the requisite supply, and Belgian matches, of better quality than the French, are bought at a cost of 130 francs the million. The cost of making that number in the Government shop is 180 francs, and this does not include the charge for pensioning the workmen when they retire. These posts in the shops of the Government are apportioned, of course, as political favors, and those who yield them usually succeed in keeping the office in the family.

If the tariff taxes are ruinous, what shall be said of the internal imposts? To try to number them would be vain; they begin with the birth of the child, cover his every act in life, and fall on his estate after his death. The system of petty entails established at the Revolution, and the restriction of testamentary disposition, compel the division of land into fractions, or its sale at a ruinous expense. After the onerous taxes on these operations are paid, the portion of the widow, should the estate going to her equal \$200,000, is taxed \$14,000; that of the children, should they succeed, \$6,000—to say nothing of the enormous legal charges affecting the complicated process. Of course, gifts during life are taxed to correspond, and transfers of property of every description are so costly as to discourage every form of investment. Every transaction requires the use of stamped paper; and for fear that enough may not be used, the number of lines, as well as the size of the page, is prescribed. The complexity of the system is so frightful that professional aid is constantly required. A body of intermediaries, charged with applications made to the various bureaus, has grown up, and their existence has been recently recognized by the law, the annual value of their offices being placed at 100 millions. The number of claims arising from a single department of taxation, the direct contributions, averages over 300,000 a year. The amount of annoyance and distress expressed by such figures cannot be measured in money, but it represents a terrible economic

loss. Any one accustomed to watch for opportunities for investment can see that France requires many things that capital would be glad to furnish. Outside of Paris, even in large towns, the conditions of life are frequently rather primitive, and it would apparently be profitable to improve them. But when one ascertains the number and extent of the taxes on corporations, their capital, their obligations, and their ordinary proceedings, there is little inducement to invest in any French enterprise—unless one can obtain a subvention from the Government. The expense of transferring title to a piece of property often equals two years' income therefrom. This is the reason why the French have taken so many hundred millions of Russian bonds. From political considerations the French Government does not tax these bonds, and it has seemed preferable to obtain a return of four or five per cent. in this way, rather than to encounter the exasperating obstructions of the fiscal régime at home.

The industry of France has thus to support not only the army of soldiers, but also the equally large army of public functionaries. The total of the budgets is probably not less than four milliards; the service of the national debt, together with the pensions, costing 1,300 millions. To some extent the national debt, to a greater extent the debt of the minor political organizations, represents productive investment. But by far the greater part stands for losses incurred in war and in preparation for war. The interest paid on this debt brings no return to the country; it means that those who draw it render no service to production. Under the republic this debt has steadily increased, and there is always a deficit. The deficiency cannot be covered by new taxes, for it is doubtful if higher taxation would bring in more revenue. Every one shudders at the budget, but the Government will not economize, and it must therefore borrow. To go to war would mean national bankruptcy, and the great army of office-holders is interested to maintain itself, and throws its influence with that of the *rentiers* in favor of peace. The evils of the situation are clearly understood, and the remedies are known; but, as I have said, the Government will not economize. To explain why would make this letter too long; but the difficulty is stated by M. Caillaux. "*Mettre un terme aux privilèges. Or, c'est la chose la plus difficile qui soit dans un pays où les classes qui détiennent le pouvoir ou en approchent ont toujours déployé une sauvage énergie pour défendre les abus dont elles bénéficient.*"

MACG.

Correspondence.

"THE COLUMBIAN IDEA."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Anent Mr. Penniman's note in your issue of December 21, permit me to say that the practice of allowing students to carry extra courses and to graduate on the completion of the required work is not confined to Eastern universities. This custom has been in vogue in the University of Iowa for fifteen years, though it has never been

styled the "Iowa Idea." However, it is our policy to grant this privilege to those students only who have proved their capacity to do this added work and maintain high scholarship. For the average student, four full years in the university atmosphere, employed with strictly undergraduate courses unmixed with technical or professional studies, is quite brief enough.

AMOS N. CURRIER.

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, December 26, 1905.

KEATS'S PAYNIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am gratified at having been pilloried in the *Nation* (November 23, 1905) for my rash attempt to emend a line of Keats, inasmuch as the incident has called forth the interesting comments of Dr. Garnett in your issue of December 21—this, even though I find myself classed, for my lack of understanding, with the French translator who rendered "Paynims" by "prêtres." But I must disclaim the imputation of having thought that "clasp'd" (the line reads, "Clasp'd like a missal where swart Paynims pray") here means "embraced." The rejected variants, "Shut like a missal," and "Like a shut missal," recorded in Buxton Forman's edition, are sufficient commentary. Nor does it seem to me that Leigh Hunt fell into any such error. The head and front of my offending is simply this, that, in view of Keats's somewhat erratic spelling, I suggested in *Modern Language Notes* (September, 1905) that "pray" might be really an error of the pen for "prey," especially as Keats must have seen the word regularly so printed in the text of his favorite Spenser. To my poor judgment, "prey" seemed a more likely reading than "pray," in that it calls up the image of the Paynims in what is in all romance their characteristic aspect, that of enemies of Christendom.

All that is unselfish in me is gratified even at the pillorying itself, for "Philologus" certainly afforded the readers of the *Nation* mirth, albeit at my expense. It is something to have added to the gayety of the *Nation*.

W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 26, 1905.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF MUSEUMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The policy of æsthetic management of museums of fine arts, which you advocate in your editorial entitled "Two Theories of Museum Policy" (*Nation*, No. 2113), appears to me beset with dangers. The primary function of a museum of fine arts is, I conceive, to make accessible a wide range of materials—chiefly works of art of past ages (contemporaneous art being accessible enough outside of museums). The objects in museum collections ought to be, as far as possible, well lighted, arranged in their natural groups, properly catalogued, and properly cared for. Beyond this, museum management ought not, I think, to go. To influence choice as to what should be studied, any further than to include only objects which have stood the test of time and are thus recognized by a general consensus of opinion as of standard quality, appears to me questionable, and even hazard-

ous. The proposed æsthetic policy would undertake to direct choice. It would assume that the intelligence of the public cannot be trusted, and that museum directors are competent to direct choice wisely. But certainly, at least in the present confused state of ideas on the fine arts, no director, or body of directors, can be safely entrusted with any such function. Neither personal nor corporate preferences ought to be imposed on the public. To cull out of a large collection a few objects that a given body of administrative officers may consider most worthy of display, and to arrange these on supposed æsthetic principles, about which there would be an endless variety of opinions, appears to me objectionable on all grounds.—Yours very truly,

CHARLES H. MOORE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 30, 1905.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co. have just issued the first volume of 'Supplementary Papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome.' This series is made necessary by the fact that it is not possible to find room for all the material in the *American Journal of Archaeology*. The volume contains papers by the director of the school, Prof. Richard Norton; by Mr. Thomas Ashby, Jr., the vice-director of the British School in Rome; by Dr. Arthur Mahler, lecturer in the American School, as well as by several of the fellows and students. The price is three dollars, and correspondence with reference to it may be addressed to the publishers, or to Prof. Samuel Ball Platner, Western Reserve University, the secretary of the committee.

Quicquid delirant reges, plectuntur the editors of the *Almanach de Gotha*, whose 143d issue is before us (Lemcke & Buechner). Both Russia and Japan had warring hands too full to extend the usual statistical courtesies to this most respectable of year-books. Even the financial minister's annual financial report had to be procured from Tokyo through the German legation. The editors were mighty curious, also, as to Japan's strictly honorable intentions towards Korea, but going to press was imperative at an hour too early for the news of the protectorate. The little trouble between Sweden and Norway and the doubt as to the new King further heightened the *Almanach's* perplexities as a faithful, up-to-date chronicle. The four regulation portraits this year are all German—the newly-wedded Prince and Princess Imperial and Duke and Duchess of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

The plain form of Ginn & Co.'s, "Standard English Classics" suits very well the chunky volume of 'Henry Esmond,' edited for school use by Hamilton B. Moore. As all the apparatus, save a brief introduction, is at the end, the reader will not be conscious of using a text-book, though now and again he may gladly resort to the judicious notes.

Three historic New England families are interwoven in a quaint little output of the Merrymount Press, Boston, entitled 'The Course of True Love in Colonial Times: Being the Confessions of William Palfrey of Boston and the Friendly Advice of Moses Brown of Providence concerning Polly Olney.' The letters are in the possession

of the Rhode Island Historical Society. The chief writer was grandfather of the historian Palfrey, less well remembered than his brother-Mason Moses Brown, though his rank and services during the Revolution were conspicuous; but this little tragedy, ending, as the advertisements at the end show, in Thomas Greene's getting Polly, and Palfrey solacing himself with Sally Cazneau, was enacted in 1761-4. The booklet has been happily conceived by editor and printer.

The innumerable tribe of the Pilgrim father John Alden is partially illustrated in a thin volume, noticeably free from padding, very businesslike, very candid in keeping within the region of the known rather than the traditional, entitled 'The Descendants of Polly and Ebenezer Alden,' and prepared in two sections by their grandsons, Ebenezer Alden and Henry Shaw, M.D. The prefatory chapter on Alden history is made valuable by several unpublished documents, especially a deed of Deborah Allen's in 1789, which indispensibly straightens out the pedigree. Some autographs of the *Mayflower* Pilgrims are given. These excellences are offset by a mode of reference from father to son truly antiquated. New England genealogists of the first rank have established a system not to be improved upon, and we regret that it has been discarded in this instance. The publishers are George H. Ellis & Co., Boston.

We trust that the group of tourists whom Mr. Charles Gibson has bundled about 'Among French Inns' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) are not really typical of their respective nationalities. His conventional rich American couple, with a marriageable daughter and three foreign suitors in tow, lend no added charm to travel in France; they are, indeed, the very kind of wanderers the real traveller will with alacrity avoid. The guide-book information with which the story is interrupted, is generally sound; the illustrative photographs are successful. But we see no *raison d'être* for such sage remarks as that "Men and women, under the cardinal influence of love, are not as others, and may not be judged as they are" (p. 307).

Miss Wormeley's 'Portraits of the Eighteenth Century' (Putnams), translated and adapted from Sainte-Beuve, include some of the critic's most complete studies, such as Lesage, Montesquieu, Voltaire, etc., for the most part accurately rendered, and disposed in such fashion as to convey a general impression of the interesting pre-Revolutionary epoch. On page 82, however, the omission of the first clause robs the following epigram of its point: "*On nous réconcilia, nous nous embrassâmes, et depuis ce temps-là nous sommes ennemis mortels.*" In the article on Madame Geoffrin, the expression, "*un homme d'esprit*" applied to the Abbé Trublet, should not be rendered "a man of intellect" (p. 397). Scherer's judicial essay on Sainte-Beuve introduces this collection.

In the translation of Mme. Arvède Barine's excellent work, 'Louis XIV. et la Grande Mademoiselle' (Putnams), fair justice is done to the original; with a few apparently inevitable lapses, however, which seem to indicate slackened attention. Who, for instance, are the *Euridite* (p. 63) consulted in regard to Mazarin's supposed marriage? The French text is *les Érudits*. Charles II. (p. 137) *guards* a grudge, because

the original says *gardait*. "The peasants of Eu were deranged in their work of moles" (p. 163) is certainly not English. We do not wish to carp over trifles, but inaccuracies of this sort have still their excuse to find.

Dr. Carl Schnabel's 'Handbook of Metallurgy' for all the useful metals except iron was first issued in 1894, and the English translation of Henry Lewis followed in 1895. The first volume of the second German edition came out in 1901, and has just appeared in translation by the same author (Macmillan). The second volume of the English translation of the second German edition, which appeared last year, is promised in 1906. It is the best book of its kind, and that is the best that can be said of it. Any single treatise covering so wide a field as universal metallurgy must be a compilation, and all compilations must of necessity contain much irrelevant and incorrect material. The arts are progressing so rapidly, and their practice is becoming so specialized, that few men are competent to tell the whole story of such an intricate and diversified subject as the treatment of all the metals; and if any man were competent, while writing it most of what was new when he began would be old ere he had finished. It is true that antiquated methods may be historically interesting and useful in the discussion of principles, but a handbook which should undertake to deal intelligibly and exhaustively with theoretical as well as practical details, would extend into far more than two volumes, and would cease to be a handbook. Nevertheless, Professor Schnabel's two volumes constitute a useful textbook, replacing Crook and Ruhrig's edition of Bruno Kerl, now quite out of date, and Percy's famous series of treatises, in which metallurgy was treated theoretically and experimentally. These are not only out of date, but out of print. This first volume of the second German edition treats, as did that of the first edition, of the metallurgy of copper, lead, silver, and gold. In the section on copper, greater space is given than in the first edition to two departments which have of late years acquired increased importance, namely, the pneumatic method (the Bessemer) of concentrating copper mattes, and the refining of copper electrolytically. But in the section devoted to lead, nothing in the second edition is added to what appeared in the first except a few paragraphs on the smelting of mixed ores and the manufacture of some merchantable lead compounds. Even such an improvement as the Heberlein process is not referred to. In the description of gold processes the cyanide method and its application, especially in the Transvaal, are treated with fuller detail than in the first edition.

The *Geographical Journal* for December contains the suggestive address of Sir C. R. Markham at the opening of the new term of the School of Geography at Cambridge University, on the sphere and uses of geography. He sketches the development of "the mother of all sciences," and, with interesting illustrations from facts, shows its importance in settling international questions as to boundaries, in explaining history and developing commerce and industry. Dr. Nansen discusses the problems presented by the oscillations of shore lines, and remarks in conclusion

that the evidence seems to indicate that the level of the ocean has, on the whole, risen somewhat during late geological times. This article, and L. C. Bernacchi's account of the physical observations conducted on the National Antarctic Expedition, are accompanied by a full report of the discussions following their presentation to the Royal Geographical Society. Lieut.-Col. Delme-Radcliffe describes most graphically the western part of Uganda, its people, animals, and more especially its botany, and Mr. Ravenstein contributes a biographical notice of the late eminent geographer, Baron von Richthofen.

Substantial progress in Asia is indicated by two noteworthy incidents in the tour of the Prince of Wales in India. Among his guests at the great camp at Rawalpindi on December 7 was the Grand Lama of Tibet, the spiritual sovereign of the Buddhists since the flight of the Dalai Lama of Lassa to Urga in Russian Mongolia. That he should undertake a journey of more than 2,000 miles to greet the Prince, shows that the opening of Tibet is an accomplished fact, and that the century-old seclusion in which her ruler lived is no longer enforced. Two days after this reception, at a banquet given the Prince at Satwari, the Maharaja of Kashmir announced his intention of establishing a State College for the benefit of all classes and creeds among his subjects, and asked permission to name it the Prince of Wales College. This native prince, it may be added, is also building an electric railway, the motive power being furnished by the River Jehlam.

In the *Globus*, Dr. Goldberg of Wilna furnished some interesting language statistics of the five million Jews of Russia, according to which they constitute a national and linguistic contingent unassimilable with the general body politic. Their language is the "Yiddish," the well-known composite or jargon based on the German, but with Russian and Hebrew admixture. The writer asserts with a show of statistics that 976 out of every 1,000 Jews in Russia speak this dialect. Only 65,000 Jews make use of the Russian and 98,000 of the Polish tongue. He declares that the Jews as a body show not the slightest indication of assimilation with the State in which they live.

The Berlin papers report that the Royal Library in that city is already giving evidence of the management of the new General Director, Professor Harnack. Changes in the rules regarding the time during which books may be kept, a decrease in the fines imposed on delinquents, the introduction of a system of notification in case books are not returned promptly, the opening of the entire library to the student body, and similar innovations show that the purpose is to expand the usefulness of this great institution.

The papyri found in the University Library of Strassburg, one of the best collections in Europe, are now to be thoroughly examined and catalogued by Dr. Preisigke. The *Vossische Zeitung* states that he has already begun the task, though he cannot give it his undivided attention, as his profession is that of telegraph director; yet he has promised to publish the first *Heft* soon after New Year's. The collection is particularly rich in documents from the period of the Ptolemies. The next best col-

lection of papyri in Germany is found in Heidelberg, and here Dr. Gerhard has been engaged in cataloguing for months. As first-fruits Dr. Deissmann has published a beautiful edition of Septuagint fragments, and these are to be followed by other documents.

Hitherto it has been generally accepted that the oldest recorded reference to the use of stenography among the ancients was in a papyrus found by Grenfell and Hunt, dating from the year 155 A. D. In the tenth *Heft* of the *Archiv für Stenographie*, however, Dr. Priesigke describes a reference of a much earlier date. In the new Oxyrhynchus finds a letter has been discovered written by a certain Dionysius to his sister Didyme, dated the 15th of November, 27 A. D., in which he complains that she writes to him neither in the ordinary nor in short hand.

On December 15 a dinner was given by the history tutors of Balliol College in honor of Mr. R. L. Poole and of the twentieth year of his connection with the *English Historical Review*. A remarkably representative gathering of its contributors assembled to the number of nearly 150. Men predominated numerically only, since the activity of the women contributors has been a remarkably conspicuous feature of the *Review*, and many of these were present. The dinner gave occasion for the presentation of what Mr. Poole appreciatively designated in returning thanks as "splendid trophies." Mr. James Bryce, who tendered them, spoke not as the new-fledged Irish Secretary, but as the writer of 'The Holy Roman Empire.' Indeed, it was Mr. Bryce who, with the late J. R. Green, conceived the need for an historical *Review* nineteen years before he joined Mr. Poole and others in actually founding one—the one which all know. Mr. Bryce was followed by the Regius Professor of Modern and the Camden Professor of Ancient History, and by others as well as the Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence. It was universally acknowledged to be most fitting that Balliol College, where the teaching of history has been developed upon such unusually solid lines since the founding of the *Review*, should gather within its walls all the scholars, wherever trained, who have recently illustrated English historical study—the more so, no doubt, because Mr. Poole, now a fellow elsewhere, spent his undergraduate days at Balliol.

Elsewhere we have spoken of the Swiss Société Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and we bespeak membership in it for every public library in the country. The *Annales* alone will more than repay the very moderate yearly fee of twelve francs, while putting all Rousseau students abreast of the progress of research and publication. The president is Prof. Bernard Bouvier; the treasurer, M. Alfred Cartier, 11 Boulevard des Philosophes, Geneva.

—The Caxton Club of Chicago has recently broken away from its custom of issuing chiefly books of interest to collectors and students of Americana, and begun to put forth works that are of direct value to collectors and bibliophiles *per se*. Last spring we had occasion to notice Mr. E. Grant Duff's monograph on William Caxton, and a few months ago a translation, by Miss Mabel McIlvaine, of M. Octave Uzanne's 'French Bookbindings' appeared under the auspices

of this club. Its latest publication is Mr. A. W. Pollard's 'Essay on Colophons,' with an introduction by Richard Garnett, which presumably will prove to be most practically useful of all its publications. Dr. Garnett tells of the origin and meaning of the word, and shows how the custom of adding colophons to early printed books, giving the title, the name of the author and printer or publisher, and the place and date of printing, was adopted, like so many other technicalities, from the practice of the scribes, and points out its significance in the history of early printing, and the need of studying it. "It is no unimportant matter," he says, "for every determination of the locality of an early book is a paragraph added to the history of the culture of the country where it originated." To offer an introduction to such study is the purpose of Mr. Pollard's essay. It is virtually a collection of colophons, in original and translation, connected by a slender (but by no means too slender) thread of comment, and grouped under such heads as "Colophons at Mainz"; "Colophons at Venice"; "Printers' Colophons"; "Colophons of Authors and Editors." They are arranged, in each group, so as to show their value as materials for the study of printing and publishing, and the author's comment serves to bring out their salient points; for instance, where he shows from the colophons of four books printed by Jenson in Venice that one of them contains an error in the date of imprint. The last chapter is wholly devoted to the subject of "Dates in Colophons," and contains some useful tables, such as lists of popes, kings of England and France, and doges of Venice during the latter part of the fifteenth and the major part of the sixteenth centuries, and the dates of Easter Day from 1470 to 1521. The book was printed at the DeVinne Press, in fine shape, and contains several facsimiles.

—The first volume of Albert H. Smyth's 'Writings of Benjamin Franklin' (Macmillan) outlines the plan of the work, and contains a sketch of Franklin's many activities. As the third general compilation of Franklin's writings, it must stand against the work of Sparks and Bigelow; and if the promises made are performed, it will surpass in scope and in utility these earlier issues. The editorial vagaries of Sparks are to be corrected, and a return had to the original manuscripts, wherever found. A more careful examination of original sources, for which Mr. Smyth has exceptional opportunities and a sharpened critical sense, will enable him to correct the errors of Bigelow and add to the quantity of available Franklin material. Above all, the Franklin Papers in the American Philosophical Society, comprising some 13,000 documents, will now be studied for the first time in connection with such a compilation, and this study already bears fruit in the side-lights thrown on Franklin's productions. Yet Mr. Smyth does not promise to use all that Franklin wrote. He rejects the essays on free thought and on earthquakes as too crude and immature; he will omit what Franklin said of the effect of the diurnal motion of the earth on the length of sea voyages; and, while printing the pamphlet prepared by Jackson and Franklin, he will not include the "Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania."

The idea recently advanced by Bigelow, that the speech attributed to Jonathan Shipley was the work of Franklin, is not accepted, for very good reasons. But 385 letters and forty articles not previously printed by any editor will atone for omissions. The claims of Franklin as an economist are examined. He anticipated Turgot in the explanation of natural interest, and Malthus in one feature of the theory of population. He followed Petty in a labor theory of value, and the Physiocrats in believing agriculture to be the only legitimate source of wealth. He was a free-trader, and Mr. Smyth quotes from a hitherto unknown letter to Collinson (1764): "In time perhaps mankind may be wise enough to let trade take its own course, find its own channels, and regulate its own Proportions, etc. At present most of the Edicts of Princes, Placarts, Laws and Ordinances of Kingdoms and States for that purpose, prove political blunders. The advantages they produce not being general for the Commonwealth; but particular, to private persons or bodies in the State who procured them, and at the expense of the rest of the people." The editor points out that the political and economic writings of Franklin were in the nature of campaign pamphlets, written for a particular occasion rather than to embody a general view or theory of the matter treated. This in no degree takes away from the merit of these pieces, which are replete with sound maxims. No little stylistic repetition is to be found, and Mr. Smyth counted seventy-three repetitions of "industry and frugality" without exhausting the number of times the phrase occurred. This volume contains the autobiography, the complete text of Bigelow being used. We have noted a few slips in proofreading—"Simancos" for *Simancas*, "Whatly" for *Whately*, and the "Duc de" Nemours where Dupont de Nemours is clearly intended.

—We have before us a pamphlet, by Mr. Joseph De Perott, entitled 'The Probable Source of the Plot of Shakspeare's "Tempest,"' which was issued in October as No. 8 in the first volume of "Publications of the Clark University Library" (Worcester, Mass.). We confess we do not see how even so guarded an adjective as "probable" is applicable in a case where the unbiased reader requires some moments of reflection to detect any resemblance at all. The supposed source is a Spanish romance of chivalry called 'Espejo de Principes y Caballeros,' which in its original form was published at Saragossa in 1562, and of which two successive continuations by different hands appeared in the course of the next thirty years. The work was translated into English, as 'The Mirrour of Princely Deedes and Knighthood,' in nine volumes, which were issued at intervals between 1579 and 1601. It was also translated into French under the title of 'Le Chevalier du Soleil,' a copy of which work is to be found in the Congressional Library at Washington. Neither the Spanish nor the English form of the romance seems to be accessible in this country, and Mr. De Perott's discussion is based on the French version. As already intimated, this scholar in our judgment fails entirely to establish his main thesis. The pamphlet, neverthe-

less, has a certain interest as offering a new and undoubted parallel—from the same Spanish romance—to the cardinal incident of the plot of another one of Shakspeare's plays, viz., 'Much Ado About Nothing.' We refer to the incident of the impersonation of Hero by her maid in that play. To be sure, the version of this story in the Spanish romance is not only not original, being probably based on the similar episode of Ariodante and Ginevra in Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso,' but is, on the whole, inferior in its variant features. Nevertheless, it will have to be mentioned among the parallels in any future treatise dealing with the sources of Shakspeare's plays, although certainly not itself a source, as, with a discoverer's enthusiasm, Mr. De Perott claims it to be.

—Inasmuch as the pamphlet in question is not likely to come into the hands of many of our readers, we will say that the main feature of the story in this Spanish version is that the Don John of the plot (here called Robert, Duke of Saxony), being himself in love with Policena, a princess of Austria (who corresponds to Hero), bribes a female attendant of this lady to personate her mistress, and in his own behalf plays the rôle which is assigned to Borachio in 'Much Ado About Nothing.' So far the author apparently is simply following Ariosto. Instead of making the successful rival, however, the witness of the pretended shame of his lady-love, as we have it in Shakspeare and Ariosto, and as a proper dramatic interest requires, in the Spanish romance the villain arranges that three knights shall be present, who afterwards support with their testimony the accusations against Policena's honor made by their chief. Unlike Claudio and Ariodante, however, the lover in the Spanish story, Luciano, never wavers in his faith in the innocence of his mistress. He denounces her accusers before the King as traitors, and it is decided that the question shall be settled by a combat between the principals, assisted by their knights. In this combat Luciano triumphs, and his rival is forced to confess his villainy. It is hardly necessary to point out that the story in 'Much Ado About Nothing' is closer to Ariosto than to the Spanish romance, although the majority of Shaksperian students are hardly inclined to accept even Ariosto as the immediate source of the story of Hero, as Mr. De Perott seems to assume.

—'Who killed Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey?' is a question which has frequently been asked, but it is reserved for Mr. Alfred Marks to use it as the title of a book (Burns & Oates). No one writing on a great historical mystery can avoid the tone of a controversialist, and in the case of Godfrey's assassination the evidence of the seventeenth century is so open to suspicion that every incentive is given the ingenious mind to work out a new hypothesis, or to defend an old hypothesis by novel arguments. In opening this little study by Mr. Marks, one thinks at once of Mr. John Pollock's book on the 'Popish Plot'; and though perhaps we should not be justified in styling the present essay a set answer to Mr. Pollock, it is to all intents and purposes a rejoinder. According to Mr. Pollock's view,

the evidence of Bedloe and Prance regarding Godfrey's murder in Somerset House cannot be set aside, despite the discrepancy of these two witnesses in point of detail. The 'Popish Plot,' he further maintains, was not wholly a ghastly hoax, but took its rise from a genuine attempt of the Papists to capture the Government of England. "Some truth there was, but dashed and brewed with lies," says Dryden; and Mr. Pollock, while not so paradoxical as to defend the testimony of Oates and his fellow, considers that in Coleman's correspondence with Père La Chaise may be found proof of definite and treasonable plotting. Godfrey came to his end through Jesuit instigation because, by accident, he had gained possession of a secret which, if revealed, would have cost the Duke of York his last chance of succession to the Crown, and perhaps his life.

—Mr. Marks's attitude toward the plot is altogether different. In his opinion Godfrey was not and could not have been killed in Somerset House, and all the arguments which can be collected to show that he had an erratic and melancholy disposition are marshalled in favor of his suicide. Not only does Mr. Marks strike at Mr. Pollock's version of the case so far as the testimony of Bedloe and Prance is concerned, but he scouts the notion that Godfrey was in possession of a fatal secret. "Every Christian community," from the Catholic to the Muggletonian, applies to itself the divine command, "Go ye into all the world and preach the Gospel to every creature." . . . But what we have to consider when we are asked, Was there a popish plot? is not, Was there a design to convert England? but, Was there a conspiracy to murder the King, and to massacre Protestants, to burn London, to overrun England with foreign armies?" If there were no plot of this description, there could have been no special motive for taking Godfrey's life. Further considerations in favor of the suicide theory Mr. Marks derives from the opinion of a surgical expert, Dr. Freyberger. Stripped of technical language, and largely abridged, the professional testimony thus adduced may be summed up as follows: Godfrey was a tall, strong man, who could easily have destroyed himself with the thrusting sword of that period, a weapon which was sharpened at the end, "with blunt edges along the rest of the blade." The marks of strangulation and the "bruising" of the chest and abdomen were, according to Dr. Freyberger, due to post-mortem hypostasis. Mr. Marks writes forcibly, and makes the most of his arguments, but the contemporary evidence is so hopelessly tangled and open to suspicion that we fear the mystery must remain insoluble.

—That far from superfluous veteran, M. de Molinari, has republished from the *Journal des Économistes* a number of his studies, under the title 'Questions Économiques à l'Ordre du Jour' (Paris: Guillaumin & Cie). In one of the most effective of these essays ("Où est l'Utopie?") the author replies vigorously to those who sneer at the ideal of progress through free competition, by asking for the ideals of militarism and socialism. Judging by their results, these sys-

tems do not hold out an alluring future to mankind. In the essay on the Brussels Convention the author contends that the action of the English Government in agreeing to levy a tax on sugar imported from countries where bounties are paid for its production, was not opposed to the principle of free trade. His argument is that free trade is not a matter of policy on the part of individual nations, but a principle applying to all mankind. England, beholding the inhabitants of other countries groaning under these bounties, was not merely justified in taking measures to abolish them; it was required by humanity. The pecuniary sacrifice made by the English people was great, but the pecuniary gain of the peoples of Europe was greater. Furthermore, the suppression of these bounties was a blow to protectionism. Nations, no more than individuals, have a right to be selfish, and it is the duty of one nation to make sacrifices for the benefit of the rest. We are not sure that M. de Molinari's views are not those of a Frenchman rather than of a free-trader. In the first place, the English Government consented to impose the tax partly for the purpose of bolstering up the West Indian planters, partly as a sop to the Imperialists, and not from the exalted motives assigned by their French apologist. In the second place, to fix taxes under the influences of particular interests is of the essence of protectionism; and, in the third place, it is bad policy for any Government to allow the taxation of its subjects to be controlled by a commission of foreigners. We cannot think that protection has received a blow by the action of the convention; and, while we rejoice at the relief accorded to the subjects of the Continental Powers, we are unable to regard it as really tending to the attainment of M. de Molinari's lofty ideal.

SCOTT'S VOYAGE OF THE DISCOVERY.

The Voyage of the Discovery. By Capt. Robert F. Scott, C.V.O., R.N. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 1905.

The extraordinary activity which has marked the progress of polar research during the last fifteen years, must convince even those most skeptical as to the wisdom of this form of human activity that interest in its outcome shows no signs of waning. Neither the misfortunes of the *Polaris*, the *Jeannette*, and the "Lady Franklin Bay" expeditions, nor the still partially-veiled mystery surrounding the fate of the Franklin party, appears to have chilled the ardor of new aspirants for Arctic fame; nor have they blinded the eye of the scientist to the many possibilities for discovery which the regions of the far north and far south still offer. The remarkable success which has attended the explorations of Nansen, Peary, Sverdrup, and the Duke of the Abruzzi, and in a minor way those of Gerlache, Borchgrevink, Drygalski, and Norden-skjöld in the antipodal portions of the earth's surface—a success unquestionably due in greater part to a more accurate study of the methods of exploration—could hardly have failed to stem the tide of an opposing public sentiment; and one is forced to conclude from Capt. Scott's narrative that an entirely new lease of life has been given to

almost every form of polar research. One need hardly seek for the basis of this conclusion in the work accomplished by the British National Antarctic Expedition of 1901-04, for the keynote is already sounded in the statement of its commander (vol. ii, p. 407)—a statement that many will consider the most astonishing in a narrative full of surprises—that during the month of February of any average year "a ship, by coming directly south on the 178th meridian, could reach the Great Barrier without encountering any pack-ice." And further: "It is strange to think there may be a season in the year when the enterprising tourist steamer may show its passengers the lofty smoke-capped form of Mount Erebus as easily as it now does the fine scenery of Spitzbergen." For upwards of half a century following the famous expedition of Sir James Clark Ross, when that intrepid navigator was stopped in latitude 78 degrees S. by the great ice-barrier which subsequently bore his name, it has almost universally been believed that the approach to the antarctic tract was one of extreme hazard; so difficult, in fact, as to relegate explorations in that "ice-barred region" to the category of mere ventures. On the other hand, we have already learned from the numerous Peary expeditions that Melville Bay, the great concern of earlier Arctic navigators, presents an equally free passage during several weeks of each year. One might be tempted to infer that physical conditions have undergone recent modification, but it is incontestable that such is not the case.

The narrative of Capt. Scott easily takes rank among the foremost books of travel and discovery which a half-century has brought out, and it will be read with the same pleasure that both old and young like to associate with the reading of Livingstone and Kane. It is, however, superior to these works, and we feel tempted to say to almost all works of travel, in the character of its illustrations, which, in a wholly exceptional way, give expression to the finer elements of photographic art and to an unusually skilful use of the brush. To the geographer and geologist the lavish use of photographic material will make a special appeal, nor can readers not directly interested in polar matters fail to be struck with it. In our necessarily restricted space justice cannot be done to a narrative which covers such a range of achievement and of speculative conclusion. To have penetrated to the high southing of latitude 82° 17' S., or nearly 250 miles nearer to the South Pole than had been attained by any previous explorer, would of itself have entitled the commander of the expedition to the fullest recognition on the part of geographical societies; but to this greatest triumph he adds the hardly minor achievements of long-continued exploration on the great ice plateau of 8,000-9,000 feet elevation which, with singular uniformity and seemingly endless expanse, continues Victoria Land (or South Victoria, as it is now termed) westward of the lofty Admiralty and Albert chains of mountains; of a virtually complete survey of the Ross Barrier to where it abuts upon the new King Edward VII. Land; and of a reconnaissance of the easternmost portion of what had hitherto appeared upon most charts under the name of Wilkes Land, and which is now shown (in the part surveyed) to be sea-ice and water. The

intensity of this exploration can be judged from the fact that two surveying parties were in the field with the temperature registering below -70° .

What will probably be considered the most interesting outcome of the expedition is the determination that the vast ice mass, the Great Antarctic or Ross Barrier, which bounds Ross Sea on the south, and has by nearly all geographers and geologists been thought to represent either the front edge or the lateral margin of a vast continental glacier sweeping down from an interior height of land, speculatively figured by some authorities to rise possibly to 30,000 feet, is in reality a vast flat plain, with practically no rise to the interior. It was on this plain, so little undulating as to permit objects a few feet in elevation to be continuously observed for many weary miles of travel, that the long journey to the south was accomplished. Its remarkable condition, wholly unsuspected in the preliminary survey, coupled with the significant fact that it is bordered (on one side, at least) by a clearly marked-out land mass of lofty mountains trending in a definite (north and south) direction, has suggested to Capt. Scott the entirely plausible conclusion that the barrier so-called is merely an ice-charged or frozen sea-surface, which rests on water of considerable depth and closely follows southward the border of a continental area. This conclusion, however widely divergent it may be from the views heretofore held, has at least the merit of many supporting facts, not the least important of which are the recession of the ice-front by many miles since the days of Ross, and the disclosure in its ancient position of fairly deep water. The lofty mountain chain or chains of Victoria Land, moreover, whose ice-caps tower to 12,000 and 15,000 feet (Mounts Markham, Lister, etc.), were observed to continue the general features of the land-surface far beyond the furthest point reached by the expedition; and their direct meridional trend has even suggested to the author the possibility or even probability of a continuity (extending over the pole) with the mountains of Graham Land and with the shattered mass of the Chilean Andes lying northward of this island.

The journey on the Hinterland of the Ross Barrier was accomplished with great difficulty, and with the virtual complete destruction of the suffering dog-teams. Progress was restricted to a daily advance of some six to eight miles, although the traverse was effected over a low terrain and with the advantages of a markedly genial and seemingly not too high temperature. A comparison with Mr. Peary's famous 1,300-mile journey, twice accomplished, over the inland ice of Greenland, at elevations reaching to 8,000 feet and more, is entirely in favor of the American commander, and one marvels, while rejoicing in the extraordinary resolution and energy displayed by its leader, that the British expedition should have been so deficient in its appreciation of the conditions and contingencies of ice-travel, and reckless in regard to its food-supply, as the narrative of this portion of its activities plainly shows it to have been. The incapacitation of the dog-teams almost from the day of starting, the reduction of the members of the expeditionary force to such a condition that even the commander

(as he himself naively states) was hardly able to interest himself beyond the weary details of the daily trials and the hopes of the morrow, and the outbreak of incipient scurvy, are hardly the lessons that should have been learned from the Greenland expeditions extending back to the year 1901.

One conclusion reached by Capt. Scott from the study of the glacial and climatic conditions of Victoria Land cannot fail to interest the geologist and climatologist alike. In the far south, as in the far north, evidence points clearly to a former more extended development of the snow and ice-cap, and to a considerable protrusion of the ancient glaciers beyond the present limits. Many of the latter now stop at considerable distances from the shore-border, and glacial markings of one kind or another, including the presence of high-level morainic material, plainly indicate a former thickness of the glacial tongues exceeding by thousands of feet the measure of what remains to-day. This recession and shrinkage of the ice, in the light of the diminished precipitation which characterizes this region of extreme cold, is considered by the author to afford proof of a general lowering of temperatures, rather than the reverse—and this view accords with that of the minor body of glacialists who have persistently insisted that the cause of the Great Ice Age was to be sought in the conditions associated with a warmer, rather than a colder, climate. The feeble ice-covering seen on many of the mountain summits of Greenland and Grant Land would also seem to give force to this view.

Captain Scott's work dispels many erroneous notions regarding the physical conditions that prevail in the south-polar tract, which, except in its deficiency of plant and animal life, stand somewhat more nearly on the plane of the regions of the far north. Especially noteworthy is the statement bearing upon prevalent exaggerated ideas regarding the size of the antarctic bergs. Of the chapters by the commander's associates on geology, meteorology and other branches of investigation, some will doubtless be elaborated into more complete monographs. Space forbids particular mention of the many interesting and important contributions which these faithful lieutenants have culled from their own special fields of observation, but we will single out a special study of the Emperor penguin; and we cannot close this review without referring to an extraordinary animal trait, perhaps as curious as any recorded in the domain of zoology—namely, the habit that some seals have, on the eve of death, of dragging their bodies to a distance of fifty miles or more over the inland ice, and to mountain heights of 5,000 feet.

WIGMORE'S EVIDENCE.

A Treatise on the System of Evidence in Trials at Common Law; Including the Statutes and Judicial Decisions of all Jurisdictions of the United States. By John Henry Wigmore. In four volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

These volumes, dedicated to the "memory of Charles Doe of New Hampshire, Judge and Reformer, and James Bradley Thayer

of Massachusetts, historian and teacher," will no doubt for a long time to come be for the United States a standard treatise on Evidence. A work which not merely cites thirty thousand decided cases and some twenty-five hundred statutes, but reviews the whole field in the light of all the research and analysis devoted to it in the last hundred years by some of the acutest legal minds of England and America, is a monument of learning and industry which is sure of its reward. It must be studied and it must be used. But, more than this, Mr. Wigmore's work is also original, and is to be compared and tested only by comparison with that of the great writers on Evidence—Greenleaf, Thayer, Stephen, and Bentham.

Mr. Wigmore's effort has been (to state it in his own words) to search out and emphasize "the accepted reasons for each rule" of evidence, to sift and arrange the mass of precedents "as a consistent product of these principles and rules," and to furnish the materials for ascertaining the present state of the law in every one of the American jurisdictions. In expounding the Law of Evidence throughout as a system, he has endeavored to complete the work begun by Thayer. Speaking of the investigations of that writer, he says (p. xii.):

"As rules directly appurtenant to jury trial, he made clear their development down to the 1600s, when the common-law system definitely obtained the upper-hand of its rival, the canon-law system; and some of the rules he brought down to the present day. It was a part of the aim in this work to fill out the missing places, accepting the results already reached by him. Portions of this remaining history, as here set forth, had been seen and accepted by him."

It must be confessed that Mr. Wigmore's arrangement of the topics dealt with is at first sight rather confused by the employment of a terminology to which we are not accustomed. Thus, in Part I., under Relevancy, we find that title ii. (consisting of twenty-one chapters) has to do with "Testimonial Evidence," and title iii. with "Autoptic Profference" (real evidence). Testimonial is commonly called Direct, and is opposed to circumstantial evidence. It is brought here under the head of Relevancy, on the ground (§ 475) that the question whether A's assertion that B forged a note can be received to prove that B forged it, is one of relevancy. We hesitate to say that Mr. Wigmore is wrong; but most people would hold that a statement by A that he saw B forge a note was direct evidence of forgery. The term Relevancy, as generally used, imports an inference from some piece of evidence to a fact in issue. We may say that an assertion like that given is relevant to the question of the truth of the fact, but have we advanced matters by saying so? Is it not too broad a generalization to be useful as a basis for classification?

The subjects of the qualifications of witnesses and impeachment of witnesses come under the head of Relevancy, and are brought into the same division with Admissions, as is also a part of the law of direct and cross-examination (§ 768). Leaving Relevancy, we find ourselves in Part II. in the region of "Rules of Auxiliary Probative Policy." In other words, assuming that the principles of Relevancy, to which it has been seen Mr. Wigmore gives a wide scope, are satisfied, and that certain

facts, so far as concerns their logical bearing and probative value, have passed the gantlet, other rules are encountered. To any one not at home in Mr. Wigmore's system, it will be a surprise to learn that the rules are divisible into five great classes, which he terms, respectively, Preferential, Analytic (or Scrutinative), Prophylactic, Simplificative, and Quantitative (or Synthetic). Preferential rules prefer one kind of evidence to another, though both are relevant—e. g., the rule that calls primarily for the document itself rather than for testimony about its contents. Of analytic rules there is, in effect, but one—that which declares that hearsay is no evidence; prophylactic rules are those which prescribe expedients to remove sources of danger to testimony—the oath, the penalty for perjury, publicity of proceedings, separation of witnesses, and prior notice of evidence. Simplificative rules exclude evidence absolutely or conditionally, as in the case of evidence offered at an improper time, testimony merely cumulative, etc. Quantitative rules are such as prescribe a definite number of witnesses as a minimum (e. g., on a charge of treason) or corroboration of some sort; of these there are very few in our system. Covering some of these rules is the "Best Evidence" principle, which, however, is more usually found as an alternative form of the rule calling primarily for the document itself. It has also often been employed to designate the Hearsay rule.

Part III. deals with rules of Extrinsic Policy, which are, first, rules of absolute exclusion, e. g., for indecency, impropriety, or inconvenience; second, rules of optional exclusion (privilege and privileged communications). Part IV. treats of the Parol Evidence rules (an exhaustive and original monograph), burden of proof, presumptions, judicial notice, etc.

From this brief summary it will be seen that Mr. Wigmore has taken the whole law of Evidence to pieces, and put it together again in his own way, while the novelty of his arrangement is emphasized by a peculiar terminology, which is objectionable as not being that of the courts. His achievement is that he has produced a systematic treatise in which decisions and statutes are coordinated in a rational, probative scheme, this scheme embodying the English and American Law of Evidence. This has never been done before. Perhaps it never could have been done until the modern reformed procedure had disintegrated the old common-law system, and until modern research had made plain the historical development of this branch of jurisprudence.

Good examples of Mr. Wigmore's method are naturally furnished in his treatment of the Hearsay and the Parol Evidence rules. The former he treats (§1362) as being fundamentally a rule requiring the rejection of testimony not subjected to cross-examination. That the objection to it is not due to its being the testimony of a person not sworn, is shown by the fact that ex-parte affidavits are obnoxious to the rule; and that when hearsay evidence is permitted (§1422)—i. e., where statements not subjected to cross-examination are received—it is not held necessary that they should have been made under oath. Confrontation is necessary because cross-examination is necessary (§1364)—

it has the advantage of enabling the tribunal to observe the witnesses' demeanor on the stand; but this may be dispensed with when it is not possible. The Hearsay rule is only about two hundred years old; it is part of our modern system of jury trial.

The Parol Evidence rule is analyzed into something very different from what it used to be. That parol evidence is not admissible to *contradict or vary the terms of a valid written instrument*, is, in Mr. Wigmore's system, not a rule of evidence at all, because it does not concern a "probative mental process" (§2400 *et seq.*), nor exclude data as untrustworthy or undesirable means of evidence. As restated by him (§2425), it seems to be that "when a legal act is reduced into a single memorial, all other utterances of the parties on that topic are legally immaterial for the purpose of determining what are the terms of their act." This Mr. Wigmore treats as a rule of substantive law, and maintains that it has no necessary relation to any rule of law requiring acts to be put into writing, but would apply equally to an act embodied in oral form. The rule is then resolved into rules of substantive law dealing with acts, in four different aspects: the Creation of the act, its Integration, or embodiment in a single memorial; its Solemnization; and its Interpretation.

That Mr. Wigmore's treatise, based as it is on Thayer's investigations, is a veritable monument of analysis, it is unnecessary to repeat. Whether it is final or not, we will not undertake to say; at any rate, it marks the latest stage in a critical movement of the first order, which for more than a hundred years has had for its object the rationalization of the English law of evidence. Its results, many of them made efficient by reformatory legislation, have been two-fold; the old abuses of the law—e. g., the exclusion of the testimony of parties in interest—have been swept away; and the law relating to the admission of all relevant evidence has been simplified and put on solid ground. But in this country other abuses have sprung up—Mr. Wigmore is, we believe, the first writer to call attention to them—which make the present law of evidence not a simple body of probative rules, but a tangled wilderness of cases, the mass of which is ever increasing, and through which analysis throws only a glimmering light on the path. The reason why we cannot understand the Law of Evidence without the aid of such profound analysis as Mr. Wigmore's, is because of the extraordinary multiplicity of cases by which its principles are obscured; and this grows out of a theory of judicial error and new trials which is wholly modern, which has been abandoned in England, and which, were it swept away here, would probably in fifty years effect as great a reform as any of Bentham's or Romilly's. The rule that there must be a new trial whenever it appears that evidence wrongly excluded might by possibility have affected the verdict, or vice-versa, makes it for the interest of every litigant to multiply exceptions to evidence. His stake is a new trial; his cards are the "rules of evidence"; and he is an unskilful advocate if he cannot contrive in the course of a case to get some rulings from a judge which, when passed upon

by the appellate court, will swell the *corpus juris* of evidence. This is all unnecessary, and in England has been swept away by going back to the old rule that the erroneous admission or rejection of evidence was not sufficient ground for a new trial unless it appeared that the truth had not been reached. In England "there now occur annually not more than five rulings upon points of evidence, as against more than five hundred in the reports of the United States"—"and that in a community almost half as populous as ours, but more than twice as litigious." Of course, in any such comparison, it will not do to overlook the fact that there are some fifty courts of last resort in the United States; but this, again, only makes the necessity of the reform more urgent.

THE FASHION OF A DAY.

Kate Greenaway. By M. H. Spielmann and G. S. Layard. London: A. & C. Black; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

The life of the artist whose delightful illustrations of children's books endeared her to two hemispheres is here admirably told. Innumerable pen-and-ink illustrations intersperse the text, many of them from Miss Greenaway's letters to John Ruskin, her friendship with whom was one of the important features of her life. The full-page illustrations have been done with particular care by the three-color process from hitherto unpublished work, i. e., her water-color pictures sold out of the exhibitions or executed for presentation to friends. They have been especially well chosen and give a very adequate idea of her art, which she devoted to the graces of childhood and all the incidents that make the joys and interests of child life—gardens, flowers, toys, country cottages, village streets, and dainty interiors. Miss Greenaway also introduced a new fashion in children's costume. She dressed the children in her toy books in a modified form of what was worn at the close of the eighteenth century, and the admiration and enthusiasm these books received led to the clothes being copied for the children for whom the books were intended.

Kate Greenaway was born in 1846, at Hoxton. Her father was a prominent wood engraver and draughtsman who worked for *Punch* and the *Illustrated London News*. Her early years were uneventful, and are told from her own reminiscences, written a few years before her death. When she was quite a child, her father, through the failure of the publishers who had employed him to illustrate an important work, had to restrict the family expenses very considerably. They moved from Hoxton to Upper St. Islington, where Mrs. Greenaway, her mother, set up a shop for children's dresses, lace, and fancy goods. Their new home was a portion of an old Elizabethan country house in a very dilapidated condition, with rambling passages and certain rooms fallen into uninhabitable disrepair. These surroundings were well adapted to stimulate the fancy of the precocious child. Kate Greenaway went to a dame's school near by, where she learned to read and to sew from an old lady in a large frilly cap, a muslin dress, a scarf over her shoulders, and a long apron; the image of this lady lives on in her il-

illustrations. Her capacity for enjoyment and power of observation must always have been remarkable. She says of those early years: "I suppose my imaginary life made me one long continuous joy—filled everything with a strange wonder and beauty. There was always something more—behind and beyond everything—to me; the golden spectacles were very very big." They served her well in later years to see the beauty and poetry in scenes of everyday occurrence; but this great joyousness had its natural reaction in fits of gloom and depression.

It was at the age of twelve that Kate Greenaway showed her tendency for drawing, at the time of the Indian mutiny, when all England was stirred by the terrible events then taking place; the terror of Sepoys, and the excitement of people escaping, filled the child's brain and found expression on her slate at any leisure moment. Her parents recognized this budding aptitude, and sent her to an art class in Clerkenwell. In that same year she carried off a prize, and showed such unmistakable talent that her profession as an artist was determined, and she joined the chief school of the art department under Mr. Burchett, who from the first formed the highest expectations of her talent. She worked for several years with great diligence at South Kensington, and at the same time attended the life classes at Heatherley's, and later on she studied at the newly opened Slade School under Professor Legros. It was in 1868 that Miss Greenaway first exhibited works, at the Dudley Gallery. "Six little drawings on wood" attracted the attention of a discriminating editor, the Rev. W. J. Loftie, who secured the same for two guineas, published them in his *People's Magazine*, made the acquaintance of the artist, and procured her work in artistic Christmas cards and valentines in gold and colors, for the firm of Marcus Ward of Belfast, then a new departure. Miss Greenaway seems not to have been naturally gifted for color designing; her subsequent success in that especial line was due to her incessant study of old masters at the National Gallery and of mediæval illumination.

Her first great success was a valentine, of which 25,000 copies were sold in a few weeks, her part of the profits amounting to £3 only. On these same terms she continued to furnish many designs, improving all the while as she found out the capabilities of color printing, very restricted in those days, and her own developing talent for invention. Many of these were subsequently reprinted in a volume, together with designs of Walter Crane for the same firm, entitled, *The Quiver of Love: A Collection of Valentines, Ancient and Modern* (1876). Her connection with the Marcus Ward Co. ended after six or seven years; and then Mr. Edmund Evans went into partnership with Miss Greenaway for the production of her books. This was an especially happy arrangement, for Mr. Evans excelled above all others in his skill in producing color effects with a small number of printings, owing to his ingenuity, excellent taste and complete accuracy. He had already been publishing the toy books of Walter Crane and those of Randolph Caldecott when he

arranged to undertake Kate Greenaway's designs; he had known her father since his earliest years. Mr. and Mrs. Evans, who became her fast friends, both contribute their recollections of her to this volume. It was the publication of *'Under the Window,'* in 1878, which brought her immediate fame; 70,000 copies of the English edition were sold, and 30,000 more in French and German. Here she displayed for the first time her double gift of verse and design together, emancipating herself from the need of adapting her work to express the ideas of others. We quote from her biographers:

"It must not be supposed that Kate had any illusions about her literary gifts, or that she placed her own productions on a par with those of others whose work she illustrated. But she preferred her liberty, and found her pencil better inspired by her own pen than by the pens of others with whom she was called on to collaborate. Other verses were obviously cleverer and daintier than hers, but her own simple thoughts were more in harmony with her delightful little pictures."

Frederick Locker and Austin Dobson thought well of her verses. The latter says concerning them: "She was very deficient in technique, but she had the root of the matter in her." And with reference to the pictures:

"Since Stothard, no one has given us such a clear-eyed, soft-faced, happy-hearted childhood, or so poetically 'apprehended' the coy reticences, the simplicities, and the small solemnities of little people. Added to this, the old-world costumes in which she usually elects to clothe her characters lend an arch piquancy of contrast to their innocent rites and ceremonies. Her taste in tinting, too, is very sweet and spring-like; and there is a fresh, pure fragrance about all her pictures as of new-gathered nosegays."

Mr. Ruskin, with characteristic enthusiasm, devoted one of his Oxford lectures to the place Miss Greenaway held in art. Stacy Marks had always been a trustworthy friend and helpful critic; it was through him that Kate Greenaway first knew Ruskin. He wrote to her in 1880, but not till two years later did they meet. Ruskin very justly counselled her from his first letters to study nature, to draw from the nude, to strive for more accuracy and fuller color. These admonitions run through the whole correspondence, and very much annoyed her seemed at times that she did not pay much attention to his advice, but tranquilly pursued her own course. His praise is often excessive, but Ruskin always delighted in extremes of praise and blame in criticising the works of those who came under his influence. He writes of a Christmas card Miss Greenaway sends him: "To my mind it is a greater thing than Raphael's St. Cecilia"; and again, about another drawing: "This is quite the most beautiful and delightful drawing you've ever given me, and I accept it with the more joy that it shows me all your powers are in the utmost fineness and fulness, and that you are steadily gaining in all that is best—and indeed will do many things—Heaven sparing you and keeping your heart in peace—more than have ever yet been seen in all human dreams."

Here we must give an example of his blame in return for one of her Almanacs: "You are working at present wholly in vain. There is no joy, and very, very little interest in any of these flower-book sub-

jects, and they look as if you had nothing to paint them with but starch and camomile tea." Inexpressibly touching are Miss Greenaway's constant letters to Ruskin during his years of suffering, in which she tells him all she can think of to interest him, with infinite tenderness and spontaneity filling her paper with delightful pen drawings wonderfully expressive in their simplicity and directness of execution.

Hers was a beautiful nature, which no success could spoil; a true artist, loving her work and seeking always to attain a high ideal. Her popularity for a time was almost unparalleled, her books being constantly in demand. But she made innumerable designs for various purposes, and was a constant exhibitor in the yearly picture shows, where her watercolors sold well. Then came a sudden change. Art in England is entirely a matter of fashion, which affects the Academy picture as much as the child's book of colored prints. The publishers found that Miss Greenaway's work was no longer in demand, and she had to consider some other branch of art as a means of livelihood. She was turning her attention to acquiring facility in oil painting with a view to portraiture, when her health failed. The last book she illustrated was *'The April Baby's Book of Tunes,'* for the author of *'Elizabeth and her German Garden.'* Various schemes were proposed to her which she did not feel strong enough to undertake—one of these the editorship of a new magazine for children. Another plan she had for a great dressmaking business, for which she was to be designer; another, for making decorative reliefs in gesso. During these last years Kate Greenaway occupied herself frequently with expressing her feelings in verse. We are told that she attributed to being "a quarter Welsh" the melancholy side of her nature and her passion for writing of unrequited love, imagining some love-lorn lady appealing to a heartless swain who too late relents. The poems given are for the most part unfinished sketches of her intentions. One little one, relating to her own case of having her work set aside by the world while her imitators were continuing on her lines, we must quote, for it expresses well her disappointment courageously borne:

"Deserted, cast away, my work all done,
Who was a star that shone a little while,
But fallen now and all its brightness gone—
A victim of this world's brief fickle smile;
Poor fool and vain, grieve not for what is lost,
Nor rend thy heart by counting up the cost."

Kate Greenaway died in 1901, and her friends, as a fitting memorial to this happy delineator of childhood, endowed a cot in her name in the Great Ormond Street Hospital for Sick Children. A dedication plate, specially designed, affixed to the wall, reminds inquirers of one who, in spite of suffering and physical weakness, brought delight and happiness into the lives of others.

MAGNA CARTA.

Magna Carta: A Commentary on the Great Charter of King John. With an Historical Introduction. By William Sharp McKelvie. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

It is a singular fact that not until now has *Magna Carta* been made the subject of a notable monograph. Every writer on

English history vouchsafes remarks regarding this great document, but, even when not of a rhetorical character, they are too often a mere abstract of terms or a tirade against John's iniquities. "Magna Carta," one man of genius said, "if it did not give us originally the House of Commons, gave us at least a House of Commons of weight and consequence." When Burke perpetrates such an amazing blunder as this, the average person, despite all the text-books of the past hundred years, may be credited with remaining somewhat in a haze as to what happened at Runnymede. The constitutional historians themselves have done a vast amount of talking round the subject, or have taken more knowledge for granted than is possessed save by the specialist. Stubbs, who was better qualified to give judgment than any one else of his generation, said that "the whole of the constitutional history of England is little more than a commentary upon Magna Carta"; but, though he edited a carefully revised text, he never took the charter up as an isolated theme, and doubtless many students besides Professor Prothero have deemed it impossible "to throw any new light on a subject exhausted by the ablest writers."

Dr. McKechnie, moved by the neglect to which we have just referred, comes forward with a book of nearly 600 pages, wherein he examines both the crisis of 1215 and the sixty-three sections of the famous agreement. He is not, however, the only historian in Great Britain to be agitated at the present moment by the Great Charter. In November, 1904, Mr. Edward Jenks attacked one of our most splendid traditions by an article in the *Independent Review*. Styling his paper "The Myth of Magna Carta," he not only denounced the selfishness of the barons and their lack of statesmanship, but maintained that the historical importance of the Charter has, since the days of Sir Edward Coke, been ridiculously exaggerated. When once the point has been raised, it matters a good deal whether we regard this document as feudal and reactionary in character, or continue to deem it the corner-stone of the whole constitutional fabric.

Dr. McKechnie is at one with Mr. Jenks in being able to see defects, but on the whole his criticism is far less radical. Obviously, the barons showed want of foresight when making provision for the enforcement of the terms they exacted. If the King were deemed guilty of infringing the Charter, the body of barons was authorized to appoint a committee of twenty-five in whom resided executive powers, both for negotiation with the King through a sub-committee of four, and for the declaration of formal war if the King would not keep his promise. How absolutely futile such machinery was bound to be we can see at this length of time, but when we consider the solidarity of feeling which for the moment existed in 1215, it is by no means difficult to understand why a scheme for controlling the Crown through a committee of the baronage should have appeared feasible. A more glaring weakness of the Charter is its failure to enlarge and endow with wider powers the *Commune Concilium*. The Council is not given any legislative functions nor is its status enhanced at any single point. To ratify or veto a schedule of feudal dues which is

drafted by the King or his personal advisers seems to be its main privilege, while the veto it possesses can affect only a very limited class of exactions. These shortcomings Dr. McKechnie sees, and he also admits that in general the barons were unable to devise practical remedies for specific evils. Thus, for example, "when John promised in chapter 16 that no one should be compelled to do greater service than had been formerly due from any holding, no attempt was made, in case of dispute, to provide constitutional machinery to define what such service actually was; while chapter 45, providing that only men who knew the law and meant to keep it should be made justiciars, sheriffs, or bailiffs, laid down no criterion of fitness, and contained no suggestion of any way in which so laudable an ambition might be realized."

Dr. McKechnie is very guarded when expressing an opinion of a controversial character, but it is clear that he parts company entirely with Mr. Jenks when we pass from particular defects to the broad significance of the Charter. "The praise, justly earned by its framers, for the care and precision with which they defined a long list of the more crying abuses, must be qualified in view of the failure to provide procedure to prevent their recurrence." This, we should say, is Dr. McKechnie's heaviest indictment against the barons, and it is a long way from constituting an agreement with the view that Macaulay and Green, Stubbs and Maitland, besides the rest of the world, have been all wrong in identifying the barons' resistance and its fruit with a long step forward towards constitutional freedom. We discuss this point at some length because Dr. McKechnie is more willing to see flaws in the Charter than most commentators have been, while yet he is unwilling to join Mr. Jenks in denouncing the document as a poor thing.

Considered with regard to structure, this extensive treatise falls naturally into a general historical introduction and a commentary on the text. The events leading to Magna Carta are in essential respects familiar to all historians, nor is Dr. McKechnie on very new ground when dealing with feudal grievances. It is when he takes up the form and contents of the Great Charter that he comes to close terms with his subject. This latter part of the general introduction clears a way for the detailed commentary, which occupies about two-thirds of the volume, and is, for special students, its most valuable portion. Modern commentators have agreed to take over the sixty-three sections into which the Charter was divided by its original framers, and for each of these Dr. McKechnie has a corresponding chapter of comment. Text, translation, and glossary being brought together most conveniently, the reader has placed before him all the aids to interpretation which he can well desire.

As an example of the method followed, we shall single out sections thirty-nine and forty. Herein, according to a widely accepted view, will be found the vital paragraphs of the document. Whereas almost all the provisions refer to particular abuses arising out of the feudal relation, we seem to reach in sections thirty-nine and forty something that resembles a broad state-

ment. No free man, says the King, shall be in any way molested save by the lawful judgment of his peers and by the law of the land. And, moreover, "to no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay, right or justice." Section thirty-nine, of which the complete text can be printed in four lines, Dr. McKechnie makes a subject for nearly fifteen pages of compact and important comment. "This chapter," he begins, "occupies a prominent place in law-books, and is of considerable importance, although there are reasons for holding that its value has been grossly exaggerated." Under the ordinary legal interpretation of the past three centuries, the safeguard to the liberty of the subject which is provided by the phrase "lawful judgment of his peers" has been made to mean a trial by jury. "A promise of law and liberty and good government to every one" has even been found to lurk beneath the ample language of section thirty-nine. Dr. McKechnie, however, is convinced from the categorical nature of the demands made in other portions of the Charter that the last thing that the barons had in mind was the erection of an abstract principle. The clause, on close examination, really contains a special reference, and is not by any means the high-sounding platitude it appears to be at first sight. Judgment, the barons declare, must precede execution, and the clause glances at a specified abuse, namely, the packing of a tribunal by royal nominees. Even a sweeping allusion to "the law of the land" may be said to possess a specific meaning, since under it every freeman shall have a chance before judgment goes against him of proving his innocence by the law of battle or of ordeal unless some other procedure is prescribed for the case. Every one who has made the acquaintance of medieval documents must realize how seldom an aggrieved magnate stops to discuss an academic proposition. Very probably the phrasing of section thirty-nine may, through its very looseness, have had some effect upon the shaping of political thought in England by giving radicals some standing-ground. But, with Dr. McKechnie, we must hold that the words in the first instance contained a direct and especial reference.

Were we able to do so, we should gladly touch upon other points which illustrate the style of treatment that is pursued in this elaborate commentary. As it is, we must conclude by styling Dr. McKechnie's work the most detailed and satisfactory examination of Magna Carta.

Grand Feu Ceramics: A Practical Treatise on the Making of Fine Porcelain and Grès. By Taxile Doat, of the Manufactory of Sèvres, France. From the French by Samuel E. Robineau. With numerous illustrations; and notes on the use of American clays for Porcelain and Grès by Prof. Charles F. Binns of the School of Ceramics, Alfred, New York. Syracuse, N. Y.: Ceramic Studio Publishing Company. 1905. Pp. 207.

The author of this book is one of the artists employed in the Great National Manufactory of porcelain and other ceramic wares at Sèvres. Near Paris, to the westward, and on the left bank of the Seine, well within reach of the residence part of

the city by ordinary street carriage, or by tram-cars going frequently, there is yet about the little town a certain aspect of antique gravity; and the buildings of the manufactory itself retain all of that regular ordonnance which one would expect of a great French national institution. The long buildings stand parallel to the high road, and attract the eyes of visitors; and behind or beside them stand smaller pavilions which are inhabited by the chief employees, all sheltered by great trees. For very many years this great manufactory had been identified with porcelain, in the strict sense of that word, with porcelain alone; but a new administration was organized during the last decade of the nineteenth century, and, very soon after the new officers had taken their places, the scope of the manufactory was enlarged in various directions. Of these expansions of its business, most interesting to artists are the employment of first-rate sculptors for the modelling of figures for reproduction in biscuit or in glaze and finished porcelain; a more general calling in of painters of merit, no longer to paint copies of pictures by Boucher upon vases, but to design abstract, purely decorative patterns and sprays of flowers treated severely; and, most important of all, the making of hard stoneware for architectural uses—architectural members carried out in this most permanent of ceramic wares, to which, by a new process, are given colored glazes. This last extraordinary new departure may not be entirely based upon new discoveries, though it is largely so based. It is probable that stoneware had been prepared with opaque colored glazes even before the nineteenth century; but to undertake it on a great scale and with the deliberate purpose of imitating in their brilliant colors the "majolica" crestringings and crownings and bossed ornaments of the Renaissance, in a material of vastly greater endurance, was an achievement worthy of a national institution.

Some part of all this advance, artistic and industrial, was made evident by the Paris Exposition of 1900, where the display of the Sèvres manufactory was attractive and splendid, occupying a large pavilion of the main building on the Esplanade of the Invalides, and having in addition several larger exhibits in the open air under the trees of the different parks, or encrusted in the walls of the more permanent buildings of the Exposition. The chief of these was that extraordinary frieze in the wall behind the colonnade of the Greater Palace on the north side of the Seine. Concerning this display, much more might be said but that a sufficiently representative volume embodies it, to wit, that in small folio, bearing the name as chief author of E. Baumgart, the administrator of the Sèvres manufactory. Among the plates of this volume are vases adorned by Mr. Taxile Doat, the author of the book which we have undertaken to review; but it is not as designer that we have to do with Mr. Doat, for his book deserves and requires all the attention which we can possibly give to it and to him as historian and critic.

The first chapter of 'Grand Feu Ceramics' is devoted to the present ceramic movement in Europe, the second to the Sèvres exposition of 1900, and the third to the organization of the manufactory—together forming Part One, and filling about fifty

pages. Part Two, next, with 120 pages, is divided into eleven chapters, and is devoted entirely to "Technical Instruction in the Making of Grand Feu Porcelain and Grès." And this seems to be the place to explain that by "Grand Feu" porcelain is meant that which bears the very great heat of the special porcelain furnace—a heat beyond that which Chinese porcelain (for instance) would bear. By "Grès" (printed in the most prominent place by some accident without the accent) is meant stoneware, familiar to all of us by its presence in ink-bottles, vinegar-jugs, and like articles, which must be non-absorbent and strong, and which is artistically famous for the splendid ware which we used to call Grès de Flandres, but now, more sensibly, Cologne ware, or simply Rhemish stoneware. Examination of the text discovers to the reader a very thorough treatise on the preparation of the paste, the casting, the glazing, the preparation for firing, the use of saggers (pottery boxes for holding the pieces of more delicate ware), and the painting of the ware with those few colors which can endure the heat of the furnace.

Finally, at the close of the book, a quite independent essay is printed. This is the treatise on the American clays, by Professor Binns, and it is divided into two papers, appropriated severally to the clays that are fit for porcelain and to those which are used for stoneware. It would seem that the presence of this essay is due to the publication of the volume by the owners and publishers of a journal called the *Keramic Studio*, in whose columns the several papers have appeared. The accompanying six half-tone illustrations from porcelain vases and platters made by Mrs. A. Alsop Robineau are explained by a note at page 190. It appears that these pieces are the result of experiments made during the publication of Mr. Doat's papers in periodical form. We are in the presence, then, of a book owing its existence to four persons, Mr. Doat, Mr. and Mrs. Robineau, and Professor Binns; and it is with no disfavor that we observe the alliance of several persons in the production of a treatise which must be of great value to the few American manufacturers and the many American collectors of delicate wares. One would be glad to see Professor Binns's essay enlarged and made to present specimens of other porcelains than those produced by one maker.

The illustrations of the chief essay are numerous, and many of them appear again after their presentation in the Sèvres folio of which we have spoken. Not all of these are the work of Mr. Doat. The great frieze of the Grand Palais was modelled by Barrias, nor does Mr. Doat's name appear among those who have worked upon it. The admirable Dancers modelled for table decoration by Léonard are given at page 33 as by one Léonard, without accent; the magnificent specimen of the intended pavilion for the Sèvres manufactory (to produce which complete there was not time enough) is the design of Mr. Risler, while the sculptures are by Messrs. Coutan and Corbel. This piece of decorated wall and window work and the admirable rondel signed by J. Coutan are to be found on pages 30 and 31. It will be seen, accordingly, that the book would have interest and value even apart from its primary merit as a thoughtful study and as a piece of technical in-

struction. But in these ways, too, it is valuable. Illustrations are used with great judgment, now in the form of outline diagrams, showing how a kiln is built and how the pieces are placed in it; again in the form of half-tone plates, showing how a bust (for instance) shrinks from its unfired condition by perhaps ten per cent. when it is first baked, and then fifteen per cent. more when it is fired with the great heat of the porcelain furnace (p. 121). There are added to the technical chapters various recipes and formulæ for the making of pastes and colored glazes.

Memoir of Colonel Henry Lee. With Selections from his Writings and Speeches. Prepared by John T. Morse, Jr. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

It seems very appropriate that just when the grateful professors and tutors of Harvard University are gathering around Bishop Lawrence to express their gratitude for his successful labors in getting their salaries increased, there should appear in print the memorial of the daring originator of this and many another good project, Colonel Henry Lee of Boston. It would not be fair to say that Boston lost in him the last of its wits or of its millionaires, but it is safe to predict that it will be long before one will appear who can rival him in the combination of these two characters.

A mere glance at the portrait which introduces the volume will confirm this characterization in the eyes of those who never saw the man, and the memoir itself removes the fear which has been felt lest this rare combination of character might pass from memory through not being embodied in type. It is true that, Harvard Memorial Hall, which Colonel Lee mainly planned and carried through, and to which he contributed the final twenty thousand dollars necessary for its completion, will stand as his lasting memorial; but the impulse, the independence, the wit, the daring of his character would have disappeared amid the vast miscellaneousness of the Boston daily press, had not a younger kinsman been luckily persuaded to preserve some lasting memorial.

Colonel Lee once said of himself at a meeting of the Harvard Overseers: "I offer to the President my purse and my advice, and I am reminded of the two women grinding at the mill—'The one shall be taken and the other left.'" The same might have been said with equal appropriateness during the Civil War, when he was chief of staff to Governor Andrew and had to struggle against General Butler on the one side, and what Lee himself describes as "the wise but maddening slowness" of President Lincoln (p. 256). He derived his military title only from his position on the Governor's staff at that period; but such service as he rendered counted for more than a hundred military titles may represent in time of peace, and his judgment, penetration, and fearless independence justified the claim. His biographer says well of him that "his bearing was simple, but very distinguished. No one ever looked more fully the gentleman, and his manners were those of the born aristocrat—unaffected, but of a certain courtliness—what is commonly described as of the 'old school,' . . . an English

gentleman in America," as used also to be said of "George Washington" (p. 216). It was Colonel Lee himself who also said: "Mr. [Wendell] Phillips is above all things an aristocrat." Lee was for many years the leading Bostonian, in this sense, that his biographer may well say of him, "as in the case of Miltiades, many individuals (or their friends for them) might have put their own names first, but each would have put Colonel Lee's name second" (p. 155). He also adds: "Sir Walter Scott said that if in any year he could not set his foot upon the heather, he should die; Mr. Lee might not have been quite willing to say that if he could not very regularly see the dome of the State House, he should die, but those who knew him would have said it for him" (p. 151).

He was "born with a terrible propensity for truth; a propensity to which he yielded until it became a passion that completely mastered him." His powers of description and characterization were unsurpassed in his day, and they were as telling when applied to a hand-cart man as to the reigning queen of Boston society, whoever she might be. When one of his young friends was engaged to be married, he said: "Get on your horse to-morrow morning and ride with me, and I will tell you all about the ancestors of your intended; you ought to know such things, and no one else can tell you so well as I can," and he fulfilled his promise (p. 164). When the editor of the 'Harvard Memorial Biographies' obtained an hour's interview with him, he talked through the whole list of the seventy or eighty men whose lives were to be written, describing each man; and, perhaps, if he had to do with a Bostonian, jumping up and imitating the way the man's father would walk down State Street. At one time, when a vacancy was to be filled in the Corporation of Harvard University, he drew up on a small sheet of paper, a list of the different men proposed, and, briefly characterized them in such terse verdicts as follows: E. Rockwood Hoar, "Hereditarily fond of the College; strong-minded; but too much like the present Fellows: would swear that black was white, if contraried." Richard H. Dana, jr.: "A happy faculty at making enemies." Edmund Quincy: "Spoiled a horn, but never made a spoon." John Lowell: "Very eligible—if an orphan" (three of his name having preceded him in the office). Francis Parkman: "Of uncertain judgment, but abundant firmness" (pp. 166-7). These are but few examples of the many. The same power of terse and independent characterization is to be seen in his obituary notices of contemporary Bostonians in the *Daily Advertiser*, and it is pleasant to observe some of the same vigor applied in the final summing up of his character by his nephew and namesake, Henry Lee Higginson. Of the selections given from the 'Writings and Speeches of Colonel Lee,' those relating to the local history of Boston may be to many readers, though they should not be, less interesting than the personal reminiscences of Governor Andrew, or Lee's speech at "the Shaw Memorial." In these we get, as hardly anywhere else, the actual spirit of the war, as, for instance, in the glimpses afforded of the difficulty, during the war period, of selecting suitable officers for regi-

ments of utterly raw soldiers. With all his aristocratic prejudices, Lee tells us (what has been pointed out by others) that the best officers culled from the militia were obtained from the ranks, but that

"as a rule those high in rank were imposingly absurd. A bit of uniform, an unnaturally stiff carriage, and rectangular movements when off duty, were deemed soldierly characteristics, and supposed by many to denote a commander, especially if further emphasized by a hoarse voice and peremptory speech. . . . The only brigadier who entered the service [from Massachusetts] drove all his best officers out of the regiment which he mismanaged. One of the three major-generals, after bustling about aimlessly, sought a command, but soon sickened of his colonelcy and retired to the more congenial position of sutler" (pp. 241, 242).

Of foreign officers, who were supposed to be much favored in the Governor's sight, Mr. Lee reports thus: "One Prussian of undoubted experience and instruction was a sorehead, never contented; one of his countrymen studied his music instead of his battalion; one Italian was neglectful of his command, another proved dishonest; one German was a brave soldier, wounded badly at Ball's Bluff, eventually killed in battle, but was always jealous of his better-bred, better-educated brother officers—absurdly suspicious. But these were striking exceptions; men who by merit rose from the ranks earned their promotion and the warm regard of their comrades" (p. 245).

A lady once told Colonel Lee, as he tells us, "that the reason I didn't get along better with Governor Andrew was that he was a poet" (p. 254). To this his chief of staff gives ready acquiescence. "The Governor," he says, "was a mute poet of the Whittier type, a New Englander with all the instincts and tastes and attachments of a New Englander. So while he grew daily and his sway over all increased, he was, peculiarly, the idol of the plain people" (p. 254). At the same time, it was true that "he was in the habit of visiting New York and conferring with Southerners at the New York Hotel; had he lived, his mediation would have been important" (p. 260). We can recognize this importance more truly, perhaps, to-day than even at the time when Colonel Lee wrote it.

The Life of St. Patrick, and his Place in History. By J. B. Bury. Macmillan Co. 1905.

Most lives of St. Patrick have been written by ecclesiastics, or persons subject to ecclesiastical or theological bias. Professor Bury, an historian by practice and profession, with an interest purely intellectual in the subject, treats the life and times of St. Patrick as an episode in the history of Europe. Though Ireland never was part of the Roman Empire, it was part of the Roman world so far as the Roman world represented Christendom.

Christian communities existed in Ireland before St. Patrick's mission; and, apparently in compliance with a request from the Irish Christians, Palladius was appointed bishop and visited the island about 432 A. D. This was the first manifestation of the authority of Rome in Ireland, and Professor Bury thinks that the visit of Palladius was directed towards the correction of the Pelagian heresy rather than the conversion of the heathen.

While the whole subject is wrapped in obscurity and encircled by an atmosphere of uncertainty and conjecture, the main facts of Patrick's life can be eliminated from the mists of legend and tradition. The most credible sources of information regarding it are two works which there is every reason to believe were written by himself, (1) his so-called confession, or rather apology for and description of his work and calling; (2) his letter against Coroticus, a British chief who had raided a Christian Irish community. The first of these is preserved in a manuscript known as the *Codex Armachanus*, along with other Patrician documents, the work of an Armagh scribe, who died about 847 A. D. The second exists in several manuscripts of different dates. The genuineness of both documents appears unquestionable. The earliest extant document giving an account of Patrick's life is a memoir written in the second half of the seventh century by Tirechan, a Connaught bishop, its object being to set forth the circumstances of the foundations of communities of Patrician origin. There is also a life of Patrick by Muirchu, at the end of the seventh century, which follows Patrick's confession till he came to Ireland, and then enters a world beset with legends.

The facts deduced by Professor Bury from the material which he says had never been critically sifted, are, that Patrick was born about 389 A. D., probably in Glamorganshire, on the northern shore of the Bristol Channel. His father was a Roman citizen, a decurion, and a Christian deacon. Patrick was brought up in the knowledge of the Christian scriptures. At the age of seventeen he was carried off by Irish freebooters to the "ultimate places of the earth." His captors appear to have brought him to Wicklow, and he remained a slave, a herder of cattle and pigs for six years. According to the more common tradition and general belief, his place of sojourn was in County Antrim, but Professor Bury gives reasons for thinking that it was more probably in the province of Connaught. There, as his confession states, "daily herding cattle and lifting up my heart in aspiration many times a day, the fear of the eternal grew daily in me. . . . I often prayed a hundred times a day, and as many times in the night. I often remained in the woods and on the hills rising to pray while it was yet dark, in snow, or frost, or rain; yet I took no harm." Influenced, he says, by a dream, he escaped from his master, took ship at Wicklow, and worked his passage to Gaul, landing probably near Bordeaux. After travelling across France into Italy he escaped from his companions, and shortly after became an inmate of the monastery presided over by Honoratus on the islet of Lérins, near Cannes.

After a few years he revisited his friends in Britain, who received him "as a son." A burning desire to preach the Christian gospel to the heathen Irish induced him to leave his kinsfolk and return to Gaul to prepare himself and obtain authoritative support for his mission. He chose Auxerre as his place of study, and remained there for seventeen years, being ordained deacon by Amator in 418 A. D., and bishop by Germanus in 432 A. D. Fortified by the prestige attaching to what was now the

official religion of the Roman Empire, and by his long preparation, and filled with enthusiasm, Patrick returned to Ireland, where his journeyings, his contests with the Druids, his foundation of churches are the themes of many legends. His work appears to have been mainly in the northern half of the island. It is possible that he made one journey to Rome; he founded the primatial church of Armagh, resigned his position as head of the church, retired to Saul, near Downpatrick, in the County Down, and died there 461 A. D.

By relegating the description and discussion of the Patrician documents to an appendix of 167 pages, the text of Professor Bury's book is clear, succinct, and well arranged chronologically. Chapter IV., on the political and social condition of Ireland, and Chapter X., Patrick's place in history, give a general view of the circumstances of Ireland so far as they are disclosed in the Patrician documents, and sum up the permanent effects of Patrick's mission. One of the notable consequences of his work was the diffusion of the knowledge of Latin in Ireland, and to this must be ascribed the rise of the schools of learning which distinguished Ireland in the sixth and seventh centuries.

Clear print, and the copious appendix containing a more technical discussion of the documents referred to than could be well given in the text, make the book easy reading for the general reader, and useful to historians and antiquarians.

A History of Ottoman Poetry. By the late E. J. W. Gibb. Vol. IV. Edited by E. G. Browne, Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. London: Luzac & Co. 1905. Pp. xiv., 364.

An Abridged Translation of the History of Tabaristan. By Ibn Isfandiyar. By E. G. Browne. Printed for the Trustees of the "E. J. W. Gibb Memorial." Leyden: E. J. Brill. 1905. Pp. xiv., 356.

The fourth volume of Mr. Gibb's monumental work covers the period from A. D. 1700 to 1850, and tells of the final fall of the Persianist school before native Turkish influences. The spell which for so long had held the Turkish poets fast, failed with the falling of Persian literature itself, and they turned to their own land and language, its customs, ideas, and atmosphere. At last it seemed that a native poetry was to spring up.

But the change was only partial, and apparently in the Turkish race there was no such ebullient energy as could manifest itself in a genuinely native literature. The mystical dreamings pass in great part; the poet condescends to the earth and material things, and uses gradually a more and more genuinely Turkish vocabulary; simple human love takes the part of wire-drawn Platonisms; a healthy coarseness of idea and expression strikes its way through. As a consequence, the translations given in the present volume will be the first to correspond for the average reader with his traditional conception of the fleshliness of Oriental poetry and the sensuality of the Turk. Yet, though so much is plain and sure, the change was not absolutely fundamental, and the native popular influences which might have vitalized the new movement seem to have been most, curiously

weak. The old verse-forms still continued, the old verbal preciosity still ruled; the old affectation and subjectivity still too often appeared. Folk-songs and ballads had exercised a certain influence, but it was nothing like to that which they were exerting on the European Romantic movement. Of folk-tale influence there was apparently none. In fact, we seem to have rather a dying out from inanition of the Persian influence and a revolt of Turkish poets from their absolute servitude, than any great infusion of life from the soil beneath. Probably in all Oriental peoples the gulf between folk and book poetry is too great for any but an infinitesimal intercourse and influence. If a new impetus was to come, it had to be from without. It was from Europe, then, and chiefly from France, that it came. The result is the Turkish modern school, a complete transformation of method and spirit, and one probably unique in the literary history not only of the East, but of the West. The revolution wrought by the Romantic movement comes nearest to it in thoroughness, but, however great the leap from Pope to Scott, that from mechanical imitation of Persian mysticism to organic imitation of Victor Hugo is still greater, and was made in a shorter time.

By the death of Mr. Gibb this latter story has been left only half told; the volume yet to come will give what has been found in his papers, with such supplementations as Prof. Browne can secure. Unhappily, it was precisely here that Mr. Gibb's knowledge was most unique. Turkish literature has found few students; this phase of it fewer still; and of published studies there are almost none. The seventy-four pages contributed by Prof. Paul Horn to Amelang's 'Litteraturen des Ostens' is so far the fullest. Even the three chapters and other fragments, then, which Mr. Gibb left behind him, will be a welcome addition to our knowledge. He knew the work of this school, and believed in its future as few have done—perhaps no other European.

The publications of the Gibb Memorial Fund begin worthily with the above-named abridged translation by Prof. Browne. Tabaristan, with which it deals, is a province of Persia by itself apart; geographically cut off by mountains and forests; in history distinguished by its long and often successful struggle against the Muslim Arabs, and as a seat of the Zaydite Imams, one of the first of the Shi'ite dynasties successful in revolt against the Abbasids; its literature famous by many names, and with a dialect of interesting individuality. The charm of character continues with it until this day, although its history is, for the time, long over, and its literature neglected. Mr. Browne describes it thus:

"Of this strange and interesting country the clearest and most ineffaceable recollection must remain in the mind of every traveller who has visited it. I merely traversed it in about a week on my homeward journey from Persia in the autumn of 1888, yet of no part of that journey do I preserve a more vivid impression—the first entry from the great stony plain of 'Iraq-i-'Ajam into the lower hills at Agh, with its rippling streams and almost English hedgerows; the long winding climb to the eastern shoulder of the mighty Damawand; the deep cañons of the Lar; the Alpine beauties of Rene; the gradual descent, through rock-walled valleys, into

virgin forests, bright with the red blossoms of the wild pomegranate, and carpeted with ferns and mosses; the sluggish streams and stagnant pools of the coastward fenlands; ancient Amul, with its long slender bridge, Barfurush and the swampy rice fields of Shaykh Tabarsi, memorable in the history of the Babi religion; and the sandy downs towards the Caspian Sea."

Of equal picturesqueness and color is the work of its first known systematic historian, Ibn Isfandiyar. He gives a gossip chronicle, full of anecdotes, moral, historical, and literary, from semi-legendary times to A. H. 647, the very eve of the Mongol flood under Hulagu. Another hand has continued his work to A. H. 750, practically the end of the Mongol power in Persia. The narrative is very broken and irregular, and movements affecting all Asia are seen as elements in local history without much suggestion of the width of their sweep. Therein, it is true, lies its value; we see these events as they were seen at the time. There is much amusement in it also. Witness the tragic tale of Harun ar-Rashid's tame monkey, which shows that Newport monkey dinners have not even novelty. Prof. Browne has translated excellently and given an invaluable index. Mr. Gibb's memory will abide green with such memorial volumes.

The Age of Transition, 1400-1580. By F. J. Snell, M.A. Vol. I., The Poets; Vol. II., The Dramatists and Prose Writers. With an Introduction by John W. Hales, M.A. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1905.

The period from the death of Chaucer to the publication of the "Shepherd's Calendar" is unquestionably the most barren in the whole history of English literature. Allegory holds in subjection practically every rival influence during the greater part of this period, and so, with a few notable exceptions, deprives the writings of the time of all interest for the more healthy-minded generations that were to follow. Then when, towards the middle of the sixteenth century, literature begins again to emerge from the shadow, we have, as was to be expected in the nature of the case, merely the first crude experiments which are destined to pave the way to a brighter era. With the scientific spirit, however, which governs even the study of literature in our time, it is not strange, perhaps, that the period in question should have received more adequate treatment than some more recent periods which stand far above it in the quality of their production. Such treatments we have in the standard works of Ten Brink and Jusserand especially, to say nothing of "The Transition Period," by Prof. Gregory Smith; and we are glad now to add to their number "The Age of Transition," by Mr. F. J. Snell, in the "Handbooks of English Literature," edited by Professor Hales. Mr. Snell had already proved his competency to deal with the earlier periods of English literature by his "Age of Chaucer" in the same series of handbooks, and from his studies in the fourteenth century he comes well qualified to undertake the less inviting task which the literature of the fifteenth century and early sixteenth presents. In this as in his former work he shows himself, in nearly all instances, thoroughly abreast of the most recent research, and has managed to

prevent the dulness of the period from communicating itself to his treatment of it.

The book is throughout agreeably written, and the author, while rightly laying stress on the more attractive features of his subject, does not fall into the common error of students of mediæval literature, namely, that of overrating the value of the works he discusses. The chief omission which we note in Mr. Snell's volumes is with respect to the romances. This subject belongs in the main, of course, to earlier volumes in the same series, but neither in the 'Age of Chaucer' nor in the present work do we find any treatment of the metrical romances, which surely, with the exception of Chaucer and possibly Langland, constitute the most interesting and characteristic body of verse that England produced in the later Middle Ages. This is a serious defect of the volumes which Mr. Snell has contributed to this useful series, and ought to be remedied in a new edition.

There are other indications, indeed, in the pages which our author devotes to Malory's 'Morte d'Arthur,' which show that he is not perfectly at home in the literature of the romances. Leaving alone the somewhat exaggerated praise which he bestows on Dr. Sommer's edition of this book, he gives credit to Malory for an originality which we believe no one will allow him who is acquainted with the French prose romances from which that writer drew. He cites, for instance, Malory's constant use of dialogue as "a symptom of the dramatic instinct which is one of his strongest characteristics." As a matter of fact, whatever may be the value of this feature of the 'Morte d'Arthur,' it was derived directly from Malory's French originals, as Mr. Snell may convince himself if he will open anywhere, almost at random, for instance, the romance of 'Lancelot du Lac.' Again, the deterioration of Gawain in the 'Morte d'Arthur' is not due, as Mr. Snell imagines, to Malory, but to the author of the Old French prose 'Tristan,' who, to increase the importance of his own hero, tarnishes the fame of that "flower of courtesy." We should like to protest, furthermore, against the passage in which Mr. Snell dubs Bell's edition of Chaucer "a sort of Authorized Version" of the works of that poet. After this we are not surprised to find him citing Tyrwhitt as an authority on English pronunciation in Chaucer's time. Tyrwhitt will always remain one of the great figures in English scholarship, but surely there have been brave men since Agamemnon, among whom we should have reckoned Professors Ten Brink, Skeat, and Kittredge.

On the whole, however, Mr. Snell's 'Age of Transition' is a reliable handbook, and may be recommended as a guide for the period that it treats.

About Hebrew Manuscripts. By Elkan Nathan Adler. Henry Frowde. 1905. 8vo, pp. 168, plus index.

Mr. Adler is a brother of the Chief Rabbi of London, educated for the bar, a bachelor of about seventy, and has spent many years in the hunt for Hebrew manuscripts and rare printed books, travelling for that purpose through Southeastern Russia, Egypt, Persia, and Central Asia. The book is made up of nine detached pieces, the last, on

"Jewish-Persian Literature," being written in German, and contributed by Professor Bacher of Budapest. Two of the other pieces (Nos. 2 and 3) have appeared heretofore in the *Jewish Quarterly Review*; two are lectures read by the author to lay audiences. To the true bookworm, to the man who loves "erudition" for its own sake, without looking very deep for the substantial contents of rare prints or manuscripts, this work will be welcome.

The most important of Mr. Adler's finds is a fragment, on two leaves, of the original Hebrew of Ben Sira (Ecclesiasticus) vii. 29-xii. 1; a valuable addition to the greater fragment on whose discovery the celebrity of Professor Schechter in this line of work mainly rests. He gives a facsimile, in a somewhat current hand, a printed copy in which the verses are numbered, and a pretty literal English translation. Many words are wholly or partially vowelised, and in a few places a Qeri and Kethib is set out in the margin as in the canonical books. The next paper, named Karaitica, gives a list of the Karaite Manuscripts, some of them not very old, which the author acquired in 1895 and 1896—one set at Cairo, another at Perim Pasha in the Crimea, the latter from the widow of a lately deceased Hakham; many of them written in the Arabic tongue, though with Hebrew letters according to the well-known system of transliteration. In others the translation and notes are couched in the Tartar language and writing of the Crimea. Some of these manuscripts are unique; others are of books that had been already edited and printed; many quite new, but of rather slight interest even to the student. But a collector like Elkan Adler cannot pick his books; he has to buy them in the bunch. If he picks, he is outrageously overcharged.

The third piece is an interesting document for Jewish bibliography: a catalogue made as an advertisement by a bookseller at Fostat, about the beginning of the twelfth century, of one hundred books which he kept for sale, many of them quite small. The contents, aside from Biblical or Talmudic text, are written in Arabic, and the titles are in that language, though written in Hebrew character. The mixture, all in the same letters, of Hebrew, Aramaic, and Arabic, is rather puzzling to read, and would be more so but for the few diacritical points demanded by the extra letters of Arabic. Among the books is an arithmetic; there are liturgies, and small sections thereof, Karaite as well as Rabbinical; there are Midrashim now wholly lost, a Mekilta upon Numbers, while the extant Mekilta covers only Exodus, and books of Responses no longer to be found. Some titles are enlarged into tables of contents, some are enriched by short samples. English notes follow this catalogue, identifying, as far as can be done, the works named in it from other sources.

Then follows the review of a work by Prof. Ludwig Blau of Budapest: 'Studien zum althebräischen Buchwesen und zur biblischen Literaturgeschichte' (1902). It shows mainly how and on what materials in the days before the invention of printing the Bible was written, and how it used to be divided into scrolls or volumes. Next comes a letter, heretofore unpublished, written by Menasseh ben Israel, in Spanish, in 1648. It discusses with some acuteness the chronology of the Bible—the four hun-

dred and thirty years of the Egyptian captivity, the four hundred and eighty years from the Exodus to the building of Solomon's Temple—and the apparent conflict in time between the reigns of the Kings of Judah and those of Israel. Mr. Adler is in doubt whether the letter was addressed to some Biblical scholar in Spain (in which country he found the letter and in the language of which it is written), or to Gerard Voss, a well-known Dutch humanist of that age. It is printed here both in Spanish and in an English translation. Incidentally, Mr. Adler tells his readers that Menasseh ben Israel did not deserve altogether the reputation of greatness and goodness which he enjoys among English Jews: "He strikes me as snobbish and mercenary, and the jealous care with which the Portuguese Jews of Amsterdam refuse inspection of their archives may be due to a pious desire to protect the memory of their ancestors." "The restoration of the Jews to England was due not to Menasseh, but to the Parnassim (trustees of the Congregation), who sent him to England, and had been in correspondence on the subject with the Dutch minister years before resettlement day."

The lecture on "Jewish Literature and the Diaspora," read at Manchester in November, 1903, treats mainly of a subject which would hardly be guessed from its title: the gradual separation of the Christian church from its dependence on, and connection with, the Synagogue. Most striking in this lecture is the low estimate of Josephus expressed therein: "He was a soldier of some classical polish, but, so far as Hebrew was concerned, he was quite illiterate." Judging from the next two papers, "The Humors of Hebrew MSS." and "The Romance of Hebrew Printing," Mr. Adler's readers might conclude that Hebrew manuscripts are not very funny, and that the life of the early Hebrew printers was not very romantic. The last paper, "Zur jüdisch-persischen Literatur," is the longest of the nine. It shows great industry in Professor Bacher, both in gathering his Persian and Hebrew manuscripts and in abstracting them; but such a pall of poverty and ignorance has for centuries hung over the Jews of Persia that their writings could hardly wield any influence, either religious or literary, beyond their own borders. Professor Bacher, however, thinks that the contents of his manuscripts, some of them the works (printed in Hebrew characters) of gentle Persian poets, "open for us an insight into the spiritual life and the culture of the Jews of Persian tongue, as we find (from these literary remains) what elements, as well of mediæval Jewish poetry as of the highly exuberant neo-Persian poetry, found a reception and a home among them."

Two in Italy. By Maud Howe. With illustrations from drawings by John Elliott. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

Maud Howe continues in 'Two in Italy' her characteristic studies of Italian life from the point of view of the wandering artist from over the sea. Whether the narrative of such unexpected adventures and chance acquaintances with extraordinary characters would invite or deter future travellers, is an open question—a matter of temperament.

Her readers ought to be prepared for any emergency after what happened to Savonarola Finnerty, a young sculptor arriving in Italy at the time the cholera was raging at Naples. Frightened away from Rome by the report of the approach of the illness, he went to Venice, where his stay is divided between "one night in a cholera hospital, three weeks in quarantine, and fifteen days in prison." It is true, that the primal cause of his ill luck was excessive potations of mint julep, added to a vivacious disposition and an unbridled tongue. Savonarola Finnerty was wanting in that indispensable quality of patience which Italians so frequently invoke. Notwithstanding the strangeness of Finnerty's experience, the story rings true

—indeed, our authoress in her dedication tells us they are all true stories.

The first in the book, "Anacrass, gives a very good idea of Capri life, the exuberant beauty of the country, the lavish hospitality of its inhabitants to all comers known or unknown. Among the guests of the famous doctor, the friend of animals and protector of birds, is an American, who possesses a priceless diamond which is passed from hand to hand. It disappears, and is found after the only stranger has been searched by means of drugging his wine. He excuses himself for "annexing" the gem on the ground of scientific purposes, and all part on the friendliest of terms. The stories are told quite simply without any pretence

to style. They are, with the exception of the last, "In Old Poland," all of Italy, and plentifully interspersed with Italian phrases in common use.

Mr. Elliott's illustrations are not effectively reproduced; those of Roccaraso and the streets of country towns are best.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bardeen, C. W. The False Entry. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Conybeare, F. C., and St. George Stock. Selections from the Septuagint. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fitch, Clyde. The Climbers. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Général, R. La Légitimation des Enfants Naturels en Droit Canonique. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Goss, W. F. M. Bench Work in Wood. New ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Kingsley's Westward Ho! Henry Frowde.

Praise of an Authority by an Authority:

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